ESSENTIALS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

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BY

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"Let us raise a standard to which
the wise and the honest can repair;
the event is in the hand of God."

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PREFACE

THIS work has been prepared to give as thorough a knowledge of the political, industrial, and territorial development of our country as the limits of a text-book will allow. It endeavors to show the part played by all the elements, racial and religious, that have made contributions to American history. The author purposed to hold the scales evenly balanced on all questions and to appreciate the true motives which inspired the actions of our national leaders.

For many valuable suggestions, the Reverend Louis S. Walsh, D.C.L., of Boston, Mass., has the heartiest thanks of the author. He is under especial obligation to Professor Edward Gaylord Bourne, of Yale University; every chapter of the book has been enriched by his scholarly suggestions and criticisms.

T. B. L.

NEW YORK CITY,
July 14, 1902.

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The World as known in the Time of Columbus

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CHAPTER I

THE GREAT NAVIGATORS

1. The Voyages of the Northmen.—The first Europeans to visit North America were the Northmen, or Norsemen, who were so named because they lived in the north of Europe. Some of these daring sailors, without a compass and trusting to the stars, cruised along the coasts of Europe, entered the Mediterranean, and pushed as far east as Constantinople; others sailed westward to Iceland, where they established prosperous settlements as early as A.D. 874. Trading was carried on between these colonies and the continent of Europe. About a century later villages were built along the coast of Greenland, which the Northmen had in the meantime discovered. While these settlements were being made, missionaries had converted the people of Norway to Christianity.[1] Among the converts was Leif Ericson,

[1] About 1112 Eric Gnupsson was appointed Bishop of Greenland and Vinland. For three hundred years the Church was maintained in this country with a regular succession of Bishops, but disasters befell the people; the settlements were attacked repeatedly, and finally destroyed by Eskimos; the churches fell into decay, and at last all traces of Greenland passed from the knowledge of Europe.

who had come from Greenland to Norway on a brief visit. On returning home he took priests with him, and Iceland and Greenland were soon converted to Christianity.

2. Leif Ericson discovers Vinland, A.D. 1000. — The Norse spirit of adventure was not yet satisfied. Probably about the year 1000 Leif Ericson resolved to go westward in search of a land of which he had heard from Norse navigators. With thirty-five men he sailed to the west and reached an unknown land, beautiful and thickly wooded. Cruising along the coast he cast anchor in a favorable bay and, landing, called the country Vinland from the large quantity of grapes found there. Loading his vessel with lumber, he returned home. The exact site of his landing will probably never be known.[1]

It is probable that two other voyages were made to the shores of Vinland, but at length these journeys ceased. The explorations of the Northmen produced no lasting effect, as no colonies were founded and Vinland was soon forgotten.

3. Europe in the Fifteenth Century. — The latter half of the fifteenth century is a period of the greatest importance in the world's history. France, which had been waging war with England for one hundred years, was now at the beginning of a stronger and nobler national

[1] Leif Ericson is supposed to have landed in the vicinity of Narragansett bay, but there is nothing to prove that this is true. For a time it was thought that the old mill at Newport was built by the Northmen, but it was proved to be merely a stone windmill built by Governor Arnold in Revolutionary times.

life. Spain by her victories over the Moors enjoyed the first place among European nations.[1] With their strong royal power established, the kings of Spain and of France were now ready to embark in enterprises beyond the limits of their kingdoms.

4. Need of a New Route to the Indies. — The trade of Europe was largely with the East, and was in the hands of two Italian city republics, Genoa and Venice. This trade was especially valuable, as the East supplied Europe with dyestuffs, shawls, spices, precious stones, ivory, and silks. The Genoese sailed to Constantinople, whence their vessels crossed the Black sea and met the caravans that came overland from the East or up the valley of the Tigris and the Euphrates. The Venetians controlled the southern route, with Alexandria as the chief port. This route through the Red sea and the Indian ocean was almost entirely by water.

The wealth of this trade was so great that the two republics waged, during two hundred years, bitter warfare for the supremacy of the sea. In 1453 a great disaster occurred in the East. A barbaric Tartar tribe called the Turks, who had overrun Asia Minor for two hundred years and for a century had been intrenched in eastern Europe, appeared before the walls of Constantinople. They besieged the mighty city with two hundred thousand men, and it fell after a short resistance. The cross, the emblem of Christianity, on the Church

[1] Printing had recently been invented, but books were still costly. The mariner's compass and other instruments for navigation were just coming into use.

of St. Sophia was replaced by the crescent, the emblem of Mohammedanism, and it remains to this day. Thus the gateway to the Black sea was in the hands of the barbaric Turks; the route of the Genoese traders was closed, and

Routes of Trade between India and Cities of Southern Europe

commerce by the Venetian route was made even more difficult by the levy of excessive transit dues in Egypt.

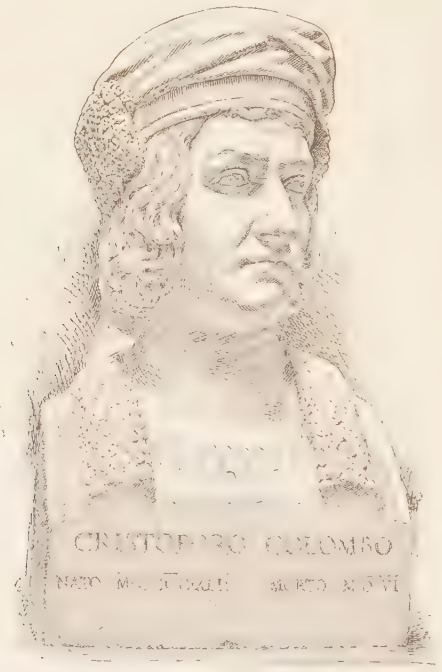
5. Knowledge of the East; the Franciscans and Marco Polo. — Men now sought anxiously a new route to the Indies, but their knowledge of the East was very vague. While the merchants of Genoa and Venice had been pushing their trade into Asia they had learned a little of the geography of these lands, and travelers had told of their wonderful experiences in the far East. In the middle of the thirteenth century Franciscan monks had visited the great khan, or emperor, of China and had

seen the great ocean that formed, they declared, the eastern boundary of Asia.

In 1295, Marco Polo, a Venetian, returned to his native city after an absence of twenty-four years. He had spent these long years in traveling in the East, going overland through Asia to farthest China, where he lived for seventeen years at the court of the great khan. He returned by water to the Persian gulf and then overland to his native city. When he arrived no one knew him after so many years. His clothes were ragged and worn. Presently he drew forth precious stones and gold of great value and related the story of his wonderful exploits. He described India, China, the island of Cipango, or Japan, and told of the marvelous riches of the East. This narrative gradually became known and began in the fifteenth century to exert a wide influence in awakening the desire of men to reach this golden land. Many plans were proposed, but none were successful until the great discoverer Christopher Columbus announced his belief in a *westward* route to the Indies.

6. Christopher Columbus; his Visit to Portugal. — In the fair city of Genoa, Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of the New World, was born. At this time Genoa was the center of seafaring life. Her merchant vessels were on every ocean, and her men-of-war were constantly engaged in fighting Turks and pirates. Columbus was the son of an humble weaver and in the midst of the sailor life around him developed an earnest love of the sea. It is said, upon rather doubtful authority however, that he attended the University of Pavia for two years, in

which time he became well versed in Latin, geography, astronomy, mathematics, and drawing. At fourteen years of age he became a sailor. For twenty-three years



Christopher Columbus

he lived the perilous life of the mariner, at times fighting the pirates that overran the Mediterranean, at times battling with the Turks. About 1473 he reached Lisbon in Portugal, at that time the chief center of the spirit of discovery and adventure in Europe. The navigators and explorers here told of their wonderful journeys; the

state spent large sums of money in spreading geographical knowledge, and the science of navigation absorbed the minds of the citizens in their endeavors to find a new and shorter route to the Indies. Columbus suggested a solution of the problem.[1]

7. Columbus proposes to sail West. — The world is round like a ball, he said, and by sailing directly west you can easily reach the East Indies. The common people believed the earth to be flat, but astronomers and learned men knew it was round. They had watched the vessels sink beneath the horizon; they had seen the shadow of the earth in the eclipse of the moon, and they knew that the old Grecian philosophers and astronomers had declared the world to be round. Columbus studied the subject deeply and read what books he could get. He had often heard that wonderful, strange things had been washed ashore on the Cape Verde islands and other places by the waves of the Atlantic, — pieces of carved wood, huge trunks of pine trees, gigantic reeds, and especially the bodies of two strange copper-colored men.

8. Motives of Columbus; he leaves Portugal and seeks the Aid of Spain. — Columbus was a man of deeply

[1] While in Lisbon, Columbus had earned a living by making maps and charts. In 1474 he wrote to a great Florentine geographer, Dr. Paolo Toscanelli, for a map which he had made, showing the route to Asia and Japan. This map was based on one made in 1459 by Fra Mauro, an eminent Italian monk and geographer, which may be seen to this day in the Doge's Palace in Venice. Toscanelli sent the desired map to him with letters of explanation. This map would have been singularly correct had not the continent of America been directly in the way. Columbus used this map on his journey. In 1871 the International Geographical Congress in Antwerp gave Toscanelli the title of "Inspirer of the Discovery of America."

religious nature. He had made profound studies in the sciences, but the leading motive of his life was the hope of seeing the Catholic religion believed by all the peoples of the world. He desired to spread the truths of the Gospel among the heathen nations and to plant the cross in distant lands.[1]

In 1481 John II ascended the throne of Portugal and Columbus unfolded to him his plans. The king referred them to a learned council of his court, but they were rejected.

In despair Columbus now left Portugal. It is thought he visited Genoa and Venice, and finally started for Spain to seek the aid of Ferdinand and Isabella. In 1486 he arrived at the royal court in Cordova. At this time Spain was preparing for the battles against the Moors, and the preparations for the war and the excitement of the times delayed his reception by the king and queen. Finally he was invited to appear before them and to unfold his wondrous plans for the new route to Asia. The Spanish sovereigns called a council of learned men at the University of Salamanca to examine the charts and plans. They rejected the scheme as visionary. At length in 1491, five years after his arrival, Columbus resolved to leave Spain[2] and seek the aid of France.

[1] "He freely asserted his conviction," says Tarducci, "that he had been chosen by God from his earliest years to carry out two great undertakings: the discovery of a westward route to the Indies and, as a crusader, to recover the Holy Sepulchre from the Turks."

[2] So well known was Columbus that the boys ran after him in the streets and called him a madman.

With his son, Diego,[1] he started heartbroken on his dreary journey.

9. Secures the Aid of Queen Isabella. — A short distance from Palos[2] he saw the Franciscan monastery of La Rábida.[3] Foot-sore and hungry he asked for aid and had the good fortune to meet the prior, Father Juan Perez,[4] who had been the confessor of Queen Isabella. Father Perez listened eagerly to the story of Columbus and believed in his projects. He visited the queen at once, and, returning, asked Columbus to go with him to the court. They set out together and soon reached Granada, when a new council was called. In this council sat the confessors of the royal household Talavera[5] and the great Dominican Deza,[6] for twenty years the faithful friend and protector of Columbus, the Archbishop of Toledo, and others, most of whom actively favored the enterprise. But the terms demanded[7] by Columbus were considered too great and in despair he left Granada. Father Santangel,[8] however, hastened to Queen Isabella and persuaded her to agree to the terms of Columbus. A messenger was sent on a fleet horse, and Columbus was recalled. The queen granted his demands, offering, if

[1] Diego (Dee-ay′go).
[2] Palos (Pah′loce).
[3] La Rábida (Lah Rah′bee-dah).
[4] Juan Perez (Whan Pay′raith).
[5] Talavera (Tah-lah-vay′rah).
[6] Deza (Dey′thah).

[7] In return for the services he would render, Columbus demanded to be made admiral of the ocean, and governor of the islands and lands he might discover and to receive one tenth of the pearls, gold, precious stones, and other valuables found. Columbus vowed to devote this treasure to the rescue of the Holy Sepulcher from the Turks.

[8] Santangel (Sahnt-ahn′hell).

it were necessary, to sell her crown jewels to secure sufficient money for the voyage.[1]

10. The Great Voyage. — Many difficulties still beset the daring navigator. Sailors were afraid to cross unknown seas, a distance of two thousand five hundred miles,[2] as Columbus believed, inhabited, they had been informed, by fearful monsters. After great efforts he gathered ninety men for his three small vessels, which he called the *Pinta*, the *Santa María*,[3] and the *Niña*. On the third of August, 1492, all was ready for the great journey. At sunrise, while the whole population crowded the shore, Columbus received the final blessing of his devoted friend, the prior of La Rábida, hoisted sail, and with his three little vessels went forth on perhaps the most momentous journey of history.

The first point reached was the Canary islands, where they were delayed three weeks for repairs. On the sixth of September, 1492, they sailed directly westward, and the terrified sailors saw the land disappear behind them and the unknown waste of waters around them on every side. New terrors constantly arose. They feared they might meet the monsters said to inhabit these

[1] Washington Irving declares Isabella to be one of the purest and most beautiful characters in the pages of history.

[2] It is indeed fortunate that Columbus did not know how far away India really was. Had he known it was ten thousand miles distant, it would probably have been impossible to secure ships and men even if he himself had had the courage to face such a journey.

[3] The *Santa María* (Mah-ree'ah) was a single-decked vessel and was commanded by Columbus. Neither the *Pinta* (Peen'tah) nor the *Niña* (Neen'yah) was decked amidships. They were commanded by the Pinzon brothers.

regions; they believed if the world were round they could not sail up its sides again. Columbus had to cheer their spirits,[1] overcome their fears, and rule with a firm hand the crews, daily becoming mutinous.[2] Day after day they sailed westward, borne onward by the strong trade winds and the ocean currents. Fortunately after about four weeks they saw signs, indicating that land must be near, and on the evening of Oct. 11, 1492, Columbus saw a moving light in the distance. On the following morning the welcome cry, "Land!" arose. A new world had been discovered.

11. The Landing of Columbus, Oct. 12, 1492. — Holding in his hand the banner of Spain, Columbus landed on the shore and took possession in the name of the Spanish sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella. He called the land San Salvador (Holy Redeemer)[3] It was one of the islands called the Bahamas, but the exact island will

[1] The story that Columbus promised to turn back if land were not found in three days is not in keeping with the resoluteness of Columbus' character and is not generally believed by historical students.

[2] On October 7, Pinzon, noticing a flock of birds flying to the southwest, believed these birds were headed toward land and urged Columbus to change his course in that direction. He finally consented. It is probable, had he not made this change, he would have drifted with the Gulf Stream northward and sighted the stormy coasts of the Carolinas instead of the Bahamas. By making this change in his course he had only five hundred miles to travel before land would be sighted; had he continued on a straight course, at least seven hundred miles would have had to be covered and dire results might have arisen from mutiny and other causes.

[3] To the first island I discovered, I gave the name of San Salvador, in commemoration of His Divine Majesty, who has wonderfully granted all this. — *Letter of Columbus.*

probably never be known. The natives were unlike any people he had ever seen. Believing he had reached the East Indies, he called the natives Indians. He now sailed southward and quickly reached the large island of Cuba, and the island of Haiti, which he named Hispaniola. Here his best vessel, the *Santa María*, was wrecked. Desiring to return to Spain, he built here a fort from the timbers of his wrecked vessel and, leaving a small colony of forty men, sailed on his homeward journey.

12. Return of Columbus. — Columbus reached Palos on the 15th of March, 1493. The fame of his wonderful discoveries spread like wildfire. He was summoned to Barcelona to the presence of the king and queen and was received in triumph. He presented to them some of the wonders of the New World, — gold, birds, beasts, plants, and a few Indians whom he had brought back with him. A solemn Mass and Te Deum were sung in thanksgiving for his great achievements, and the king and queen fell on their knees in homage to God for the benefits granted to their kingdom. On Columbus were showered most signal honors. He was appointed admiral, the king's viceroy in the New World, and was to receive one tenth of all the gold and precious stones found in the new possessions.

13. Later Voyages of Columbus. — In September, 1493, only seven months after his return, he set out once more across the western seas. Those who had scoffed at his first voyage now sought to accompany him on his second journey. He founded a colony on the present

island of Haiti and discovered Jamaica, Porto Rico, and the islands of the Caribbean sea.[1] Five years later (1498) he made a third voyage, discovering the island of Trinidad and the Orinoco river. His efforts to find a way into the Indian ocean had been unsuccessful. The popular discontent at the failure to find gold[2] increased daily, and the cost of the voyages was so great that the court lost interest in him.[3]

He made one more attempt. In 1502 he sailed westward, visiting Honduras and the isthmus of Panama. He died broken-hearted, in neglect, on May 20, 1506. To the hour of his death he believed he had reached Asia by the best and most direct route. He never knew he had given to mankind a new world.

14. John Cabot's Voyage. — In the meantime the discoveries of Columbus stirred other adventurous spirits.

[1] The unfortunate natives, by a system of slavery, were kept by the Spaniards in the mines at hard labor until they perished by thousands. Bartolomé de Las Casas, the noble Dominican, with all his power tried to better the condition of the natives. In this noble work he was assisted by Father Antonio Montesino, another Dominican. The names of Las Casas and Montesino will ever be remembered by those whose hearts beat for a suffering humanity.

[2] When Columbus touched at Santo Domingo he was arrested on false charges by the Spanish governor and, being placed in chains, was sent to Spain. The captain of the ship desired to remove them; but Columbus refused, and he wore them till he reached the port. Queen Isabella cordially received the old admiral and with tears in her eyes bestowed honors upon him. Full justice was not done him, however, as he never again obtained the powers granted in his contract.

[3] The Portuguese had been trying for many years to find a water route to India by sailing around Africa. At last Vasco da Gama doubled the cape of Good Hope and in 1498 reached India. As a result of this discovery, popular interest was lost in the achievements of Columbus.

There resided in England an Italian, John Cabot[1] by name, who was commissioned by Henry VII, king of England, to seek a northern route for the spice trade. Cabot sailed from Bristol May, 1497, in a single vessel and discovered the continent of America, probably on the coast of Labrador, June 24. Believing he had discovered Asia, he landed and, erecting a large cross bearing aloft the flag of England, he claimed the entire country in behalf of the king of England. A year later, April, 1498, with his son Sebastian Cabot, he returned and explored the coast as far south as perhaps Cape Hatteras.[2] These voyages are most important, as they gave England a claim to the Atlantic seaboard and the right to colonize North America, although one hundred years were allowed to pass before a permanent settlement was made.

15. Division of the World. — After the return of Columbus from his great voyage Spain and Portugal began to disagree as to the ownership of lands yet to be discovered. The matter was referred to His Holiness Pope Alexander VI by the sovereigns of the nations. To settle the conflicting claims, the Pope finally divided the world[3] by a meridian line drawn very nearly

[1] Cabot (Cab'ot). His name in Italian was Caboto.

[2] On his return Cabot was called the "Great Admiral" and was dressed in beautiful silks. For giving him the title to North America, the king presented him with fifty dollars and a pension, to be paid for, however, by the port of Bristol.

[3] At first this imaginary line was drawn from pole to pole one hundred leagues west of the Azores and the Cape Verde islands, but King John of Portugal was dissatisfied. In 1494 the line was drawn three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde islands. This

midway through the Atlantic. He gave to Portugal all pagan lands discovered by the Portuguese east of this line, and to Spain all pagan lands west of it.[1]

16. The Voyage of Vasco da Gama to India; Cabral's Journey. — Only five years after the discovery of America the Portuguese at last found their long-coveted route around Africa. In 1497 the great captain Vasco da Gama, starting from Lisbon, sailed around the cape of Good Hope and reached India. In 1499 he returned in triumph with his vessels laden with the spices, silks, bronzes, ivory, and precious stones of the East. Da Gama had found the sea route which Columbus had sought in vain. This discovery turned the attention of European navigators to the new route, and for some years no further voyages were made to North America.

Within a few months, however, in 1500, a Portuguese navigator, Cabral,[2] sailed with a fleet of thirteen ships for India. He put out boldly to sea and drifted so far

change later gave Portugal title to a part of the South American continent. "As between the Christian nations, the Sovereign Pontiff was the supreme arbiter of conflicting claims; hence the famous bull issued by Pope Alexander VI in 1493." — WHEATON'S *Elements of International Law*, Vol. II, Chap. IV.

At this time practically the entire Christian world was in communion with the See of Rome, and all the early great discoverers — Columbus, Cabot, Vespucius, Da Gama, Magellan, Cabral, and Balboa — were Catholics.

[1] Franciscan missionaries came with Columbus to the New World. From time to time their numbers were increased, until they had preached the Gospel from Florida to the Pacific and from the Colorado to Patagonia. In the Antilles, in our southwest, in Mexico, Peru, Chili, Paraguay, and Argentina their monasteries were the center whence civilization and religion flowed to the native tribes. [2] Cabral (Cah-brahl').

from the African coast that, to his amazement, he saw land to the west one April morning in the year 1500. It was that part of the coast of South America now called Brazil. If it were east of the Line of Demarcation, it belonged to Portugal. He soon discovered that it was east, and sent a vessel back to Lisbon with the news of his good fortune.

17. Americus Vespucius. — The king of Portugal acted promptly. He fitted out a fleet of three ships and gave the command of it to a Florentine merchant and traveler, Americus Vespucius.[1] In May, 1501, the fleet sailed westward from Lisbon, sighting South America at cape St. Roque in Brazil. They skirted the coast as far south as the river La Plata. Vespucius now turned southward to keep east of the Line of Demarcation and sailed until the Antarctic ice fields blocked his way. He then returned to Lisbon.

18. The Name of America. — Vespucius made another voyage to the southern continent, and in 1504 published an account of what he had seen in the New World. His voyages were of great importance. They proved the existence of a new continent, secured Brazil for the Portuguese crown, and resulted in giving the name

[1] Americus Vespucius (Amer'icus Vespu'cius) is a Latinized form of the navigator's name, the Italian form being Amerigo Vespucci (Ah-mah-ree'go Ves poot'chee). Vespucius is said to have been the pilot of a fleet, commanded by Pinzon, one of Columbus' old officers, which, sailing in 1497, visited Honduras, entered the gulf of Mexico, and passing between Cuba and Florida explored the coast as far north as Chesapeake bay, thus sighting the mainland of the New World before Columbus or the Cabots. Many historians, however, do not believe Vespucius ever made this journey

Map showing Routes of Eight Important Voyages

America to the western hemisphere. The description of the new world which he had made fell into the hands of a German, Martin Waldseemüller,[1] a teacher of geography in a little college at St. Dié,[2] in eastern France. In 1507 the paper of Vespucius was printed on the college press and contained the suggestion that the new-found land should be named America in honor of Americus Vespucius, as Waldseemüller supposed Vespucius had discovered it. The name was placed on the maps of that time; at first only on Brazil, later on South America, and still later was given to the whole western hemisphere. Thus Columbus was deprived of the great honor of having his name given to the new world he had discovered.

19. Discovery of the Pacific Ocean, 1513. — In the year 1513 a Spanish navigator and adventurer, Balboa, hoped to repair his broken fortunes by seeking the wealth of the New World. While exploring the isthmus of Panama, he was told by an Indian chief of a great sea to the west beyond the mountains and of lands whose shores were filled with gold and silver. Balboa thereupon pushed eagerly onward and reaching the crest of the heavily wooded ridge saw[3] before him the greatest of

[1] Waldseemüller (Valt'zay-muhl-ler).

[2] St. Dié (San De-ay').

[3] It was a sight in beholding which for the first time any man would wish to be alone. Balboa had his men sit down while he ascended and then in solitude looked down on the vast Pacific. Falling on his knees, he gave thanks to God for the favor shown to him in his being permitted to discover the Sea of the South. Then he beckoned to his men to come up. Both he and they knelt down and poured forth their thanks to God. — HELPS' *Spanish Conquest in America*, I, 342.

earth's oceans. On reaching the shore he waded into the sea and claimed possession of this vast body of water, together with all the bordering lands, for the crown of Spain. As the sea was south of the isthmus of Panama where he stood, he called it the South sea to distinguish it from the North sea, as the Caribbean was called by the Spaniards.

20. The Voyage of Magellan. — Six years later a native of Portugal, Ferdinand Magellan, having had some differences with his king, offered his services to Charles V of Spain, declaring his ability to find a shorter route to the rich Spice islands than was known to the world. The fleet of five ships was fitted out and sailed westward. Believing that he could find south of the La Plata river a passage leading to the South sea, he skirted the coast of South America until he entered the strait which has since borne his name.

He soon reached the great waste of waters named by Balboa the South sea, but which he called the Pacific ocean because it was so calm.[1] Sailing across this broad ocean, he discovered the Philippines.[2] In an encounter with the natives of these islands he lost his life. The journey was continued under one of

[1] For three months and twenty days Magellan sailed on the Pacific and never saw inhabited land. He was compelled by famine to strip off the pieces of skin and leather wherewith his rigging was here and there bound, to soak them in the sea and then soften them, so as to make a wretched food; to drink water gone putrid by keeping, and yet he resolutely held on his course, though his men were dying daily. — DRAPER'S *History of Intellectual Development of Europe*, Chap. XIX.

[2] March 16, 1521. So named (1543) after Philip II of Spain.

Magellan's captains, Sebastian del Cano. He rounded the cape of Good Hope in the only vessel that remained out of the five and reached Spain in 1522, bearing with him Magellan's written report of the expedition and a map of the route. This was the first voyage around the world. It proved beyond question the rotundity of the earth, that South America was a continent, and that Columbus had discovered, not Asia, but a new world.

SUMMARY

In A.D. 1000 Leif Ericson, with a party of Northmen, visited the coast of New England. No permanent settlements were made and the Norse voyages were soon forgotten.

In 1492 Christopher Columbus, an Italian, sailing under the flag of Spain, in trying to find a westward route to the Indies discovered the West India islands.

In 1497 John Cabot, an Italian, sailing under the patronage of England, discovered the continent of North America.

In 1504 Americus Vespucius, an Italian, after two voyages to the New World, published a description of what he had seen. From this book the name America was given to the western hemisphere.

In 1513 Balboa, a Spaniard, explored the isthmus of Panama and discovered the Pacific ocean.

In 1519 Magellan began his voyage. One of his vessels sailed around the world, which was thus proved to be a globe.[1]

[1] No American should ever forget the debt of gratitude we owe to Spain for her early efforts in discovering and civilizing America. "The Spanish . . . built the first cities, opened the first churches, schools and universities; brought the first printing presses, made the first books, wrote the first dictionaries, histories and geographies. . . . By 1575, nearly a century before there was a printing press in English America, many books in twelve different Indian languages had been printed in the City of Mexico . . . and three Spanish universities in America were nearly rounding out their century when Harvard was founded." — C. F. LUMMIS, *The Spanish Pioneers*, p. 23.

CHAPTER II

THE EXPLORERS

SPANISH EXPLORATIONS

21. Ponce de Leon, 1513. — The first Spanish expedition into North America was led by Ponce de Leon,[1] who had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage, and had been later a governor of one of the West Indies. Hearing from the Indians of a country possessing gold and a wonderful spring that would restore youth to the aged, in March, 1513, with three ships, fitted out at his own expense, he sailed from Porto Rico. On Easter Sunday, 1513, he came in view of the coast near the site of the present city of St. Augustine and called the land Florida from Pascua Florida,[2] the Spanish name for Easter. Eight years later he attempted to found a settlement on this coast but was mortally wounded by the Indians. He returned to Cuba to die, and the first attempt to found a colony within the present limits of the United States ended in disaster.

22. The Conquest of Mexico, 1519. — The Spanish voyagers had heard stories from time to time of the fabulous wealth of an Indian confederacy, the Aztecs,[3] in Mexico,

[1] Ponce de Leon (Pon'thay da Lay-ohn').

[2] Pascua Florida (Pahs'quah Flo-ree'dah).

[3] This confederacy consisted of three tribes, in a condition of barbarism. They were without iron tools or domestic animals; they offered human sacrifices and resorted to cannibalism. The grandeur of the so-called "Empire" of Montezuma is a myth.

and an expedition under Hernando Cortés [1] set out from Cuba to conquer the country. Landing on the site of the present city of Vera Cruz in the spring of 1519, with only four hundred and fifty men, Cortés started on his march of more than two hundred miles through an unknown country filled with hostile foes.[2] The Aztecs had won the

Spanish Explorations

undying hate of neighboring tribes because of their inhuman and revolting cruelty. This fact saved Cortés and his little band, for he soon made an alliance with the enemies of the Aztecs, and after two years of desperate fighting, in which the Spaniards suffered many reverses, the power of the Aztecs was broken and Spain took possession of the country.

[1] Hernando Cortés (Air-nahn'doh Cor-tace').

[2] To prevent a rebellion among his troops, he sank all his ships. The only hope of safety for the men now lay in conquering the country.

23. De Ayllon's Expedition, 1526. — A wealthy Spaniard, De Ayllon, who lived in Santo Domingo, determined to plant a colony on the Atlantic coast and sailed northward, in June, 1526, with three vessels, containing six hundred colonists.[1] He reached the James river and made a settlement on the very spot, it is supposed, where eighty-one years later the English planted their first permanent settlement. He called his colony San Miguel[2] (St. Michael). He used negro slaves to do the heaviest work, the first use of negro slave labor within the territory of our present Union. The terrible winter that followed killed many of the colonists; others were tomahawked by the Indians; mutinies arose on every hand, and finally De Ayllon himself died in October, 1526. In the following spring the survivors, one hundred and fifty in number, embarked for Santo Domingo. This was the only attempt of the Spaniards to found a settlement north of St. Augustine.

24. De Narvaez's Expedition, 1528. — In 1528 Pánfilo de Narvaez,[3] hoping to rival the brilliant exploits of Cortés, set out to conquer the land to the north of the gulf of Mexico. Indians had been seen at Mobile bay wearing ornaments of gold, which had come, they said, from a country to the north. With four ships and four

[1] The ruler of Spain, Emperor Charles V, ordered De Ayllon (Day Ah-eel-yohn′) to carry missionaries with him at the expense of the crown. The emperor wrote: "Our principal interest in the discovery of new lands is that the inhabitants and natives thereof, who are without the light of the knowledge of faith may be brought to understand the truths of our holy Catholic faith."

[2] San Miguel (Sahn Mee-gale′).

[3] Pánfilo de Narvaez (Pahn′fee-lo day Nahr-vah′aith).

hundred men Narvaez sailed from Cuba and soon reached Tampa bay. Leaving the ships for a short exploration he marched inland; but disasters quickly overtook him. His treatment of the Indians was so cruel that they attacked him at every point. Narvaez tried in vain to find the ships again and wandered hither and thither along the coast. Some of the expedition at last built boats and rowed along the shore to the mouth of the Mississippi, where Narvaez was drowned; the expedition was scattered, and four survivors, one of them an officer named Cabeza de Vaca,[1] fell into the hands of the Indians. They wandered from tribe to tribe until, after nine years and a journey of two thousand miles, they reached the western coast of Mexico. Cabeza de Vaca told wonderful stories of the immense herds of buffaloes he had seen and of the fabulously wealthy cities in the interior.

25. Coronado's Expedition, 1540. — The Spanish viceroy of Mexico, Mendoza, hearing the wonderful tales told by Vaca and his companions, determined to find these rich cities, and sent a Franciscan monk, Father Mark, a native of Nice, to search for them. He penetrated probably as far north as the Zuñi pueblo (or settlement) of New Mexico, which he saw from a distance. His little force was attacked, and he returned to Mendoza with an account of his journey. Believing they had found the famous "seven cities of Cibola,"[2] Coronado,

[1] Cabeza de Vaca (Cah-bay'thah day Vah'cah).

[2] Cibola (Thee-boh'lah). It was a tradition that on the conquest of the Spanish peninsula by the Moors in the eighth century, a bishop had fled from Lisbon with his followers across the sea and founded seven rich cities. The Spaniards believed they had now found these cities.

who was at that time governor of a Mexican province, was dispatched with one thousand one hundred men to conquer them and bear away their treasures. He attacked and ransacked the first of these cities, but nothing valuable was found. The rude houses were made of sunburnt clay, and the poverty of the natives showed that gold was an unknown article. He now roamed over those vast deserts and plains covered with buffaloes,[1] discovered the canyon of the Colorado, penetrated as far north as the Platte river and eastward to the Mississippi, where he is said to have erected a cross bearing the inscription: "Thus far came the General Francisco Vasquez de Coronado."[2] He returned to Mexico in 1542, disappointed at his failure.[3]

26. De Soto's Conquest of Florida, 1539; Discovery of the Mississippi. — In the meantime another Spaniard, Hernando de Soto, who had been appointed governor of Cuba in 1531, decided to try his fortunes in the search for the gold country. In May, 1539, he landed at Tampa bay with about five hundred and seventy men and two hundred horses. He advanced slowly northward through the swamps and jungles, suffering bitter

[1] In nine days' march I reached some plains so vast that I did not find their limit anywhere that I went, although I travelled more than three hundred leagues through them. And I found such a quantity of cows [buffaloes] that it is impossible to number them. — *Letter of Coronado.*

[2] Francisco Vasquez de Coronado (Frahn-thees'co Vahs'quaith day Co-ro-nah'doh).

[3] Forty years later (1582) the Spanish Franciscans founded Santa Fe, the second oldest city in the United States. Some authorities give the date of this foundation as 1605.

hardships. The journey led him among barbarous Indian tribes, the Seminoles, Choctaws, Creeks, and Chickasaws. In the course of a year, after traversing the states of Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, they reached the "Father of Waters,"[1] the Mississippi. Crossing this river, they marched westward through the present state of Arkansas. Finding nothing of value, they turned southward, and in the spring of 1541, two years after they had started, they again came upon the Mississippi at the point where the Red river enters it. Here De Soto died, and to conceal his death from the Indians, who feared him, he was buried in the waters of the great river he had discovered. Nearly half of the expedition had died of fever and of wounds inflicted by the Indians. The survivors built rude boats and sailed down the river to the gulf of Mexico, where they made their way to the Spanish settlements.

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS

27. Verrazano's Voyage. — For some time after the division of the world between Spain and Portugal, France did nothing of importance in the way of exploration. In 1523, Francis I, king of France, desiring to obtain a share of the territory in the New World, sent Verrazano, a native of Florence but now in the French service, on a voyage of discovery. Sighting land near cape

[1] The first European to see the Mississippi river was Alvarez de Pineda (Ahl-vah'raith day Pee-nay'dah), who discovered its mouth and spent six weeks cruising upon it. He named it Río de Espíritu Santo (River of the Holy Ghost).

Hatteras in 1524, he cruised along the Atlantic coast northward. He soon entered the present harbor of New York, which he compared to a beautiful lake. After cruising along the shores of what is now Long Island, he discovered and entered Narragansett bay and sailed along the coasts of Massachusetts and Maine — probably the first European to trace the Atlantic coast from the mouth of the Chesapeake to the bay of Fundy. On his return he wrote a letter to the French king describing his voyage, which is the earliest description known to exist of the coast of the United States.

28. Cartier's Explorations. — The war which was now being waged between France and Spain prevented further explorations for some years. In 1534 the ancient town of St.-Malo, with its battlements and turrets frowning over the surging ocean, was the scene of preparations for an expedition which was destined to be of the greatest importance to France. In April of that year Cartier[1] sailed to the west and discovered the land since called Newfoundland. Passing through the straits of Belle Isle, he sailed into a gulf which he called the gulf of St. Lawrence, because it was the feast day (August 10) of that saint. As the winter was approaching, they returned to France.

Cartier prepared at once for another voyage, and on the morning of May 16, 1535, he assembled the officers and crew of his three vessels in the cathedral of St.-Malo, where they received the blessing of the bishop and sailed for the St. Lawrence. Entering this mighty river, he

[1] Cartier (Car-tee-ay').

sailed onward, passing the mouth of the Saguenay, and still further the towering promontory with its bold cliffs, rugged against the sky, — the heights where later rose the fortifications of Quebec. Cartier with his Indian pilots pushed on up the river, whose banks were covered with forests festooned with grapevines, and whose waters were alive with wild fowl of every description. They reached Hochelaga, as the spot was called by the Indians. Cartier named it Montreal, or Royal Mountain, and claimed possession of the country for the king of France.

29. Founding of Port Royal, 1605. — On Cartier's return civil wars so disturbed the kingdom of France that seventy years elapsed before another expedition was fitted out for colonization purposes, although hundreds of vessels sailed for fish every year to the Banks of Newfoundland. In 1604 a French nobleman, Sieur De Monts,[1] obtained a grant to colonize Acadia, a name given to the region from the fortieth to the forty-sixth parallel of north latitude, or from Philadelphia to Halifax. The expedition sailed in the spring of 1604, cruised along the coast, explored the bay of Fundy, and finally established a settlement at Port Royal,[2] now Annapolis, Nova Scotia.

[1] Sieur De Monts (See-ur' Dĕ Mŏng).

[2] In 1613 an English expedition from Jamestown utterly destroyed Port Royal. Another settlement, St. Sauveur, on Mount Desert island, had been destroyed a short time before by the English. Fathers Biard and Massé, the first Jesuit missionaries on American territory, were seized, the latter being put adrift at sea in an open boat, while the former, with another Jesuit, was taken to Jamestown and was later sent to France.

30. Champlain founds Quebec, 1608. — Among De Monts's companions was a captain of the royal navy, Samuel de Champlain, a brave soldier, a tireless and scientific explorer, whose love of France was equaled only by his desire to Christianize and civilize the Indians. He has been rightly named "The Father of New France." Sailing up the majestic river, past the wooded banks where the Indian camps sent up their curling wreaths of smoke, Champlain landed on the site of Quebec, and here was established, in 1608, a trading colony, the first permanent French settlement in America.[1]

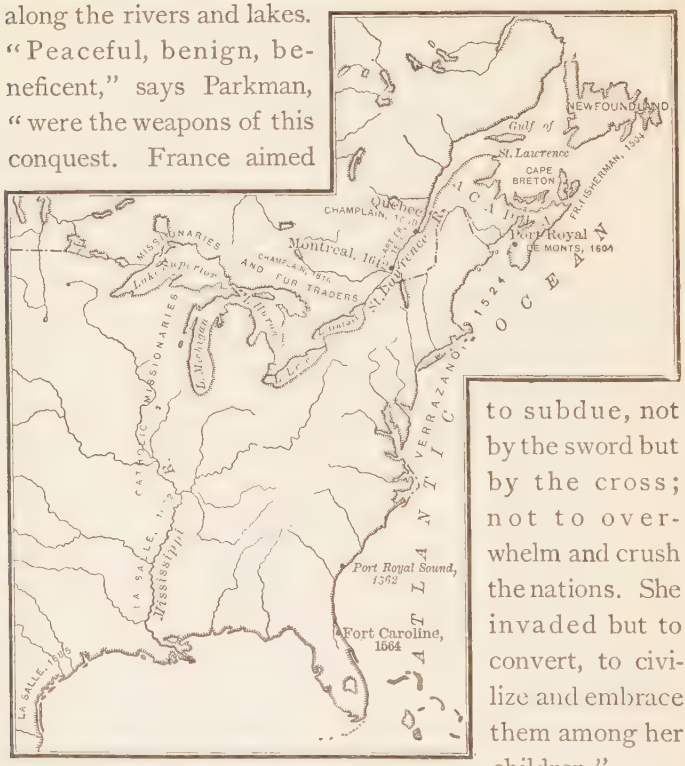
31. Discovery of Lake Champlain. — Soon after his arrival Champlain joined the allied army of the Hurons and the Algonquins, who were at war with the fierce Iroquois. Moving up the river, called Richelieu from the great cardinal of France, Champlain saw before him the superb lake that now bears his name.[2] It was dotted with islands; its banks were covered with dark hemlocks and pines; while on the eastern horizon rose the Green mountains, and to the west stretched the Adirondacks, where roamed the Iroquois. The forces met at the head of the lake, and the Iroquois, panic-stricken at the noise of Champlain's guns, fled for their lives.[3] During the next twenty-seven years Champlain journeyed

[1] The attempt made to found a settlement at Port Royal, Nova Scotia, in 1605 was a failure. Five years later a permanent settlement was made, but Quebec had already been founded two years.

[2] Champlain also discovered lake Ontario and lake Huron.

[3] The victory of Champlain was a costly one for France. From this time the Iroquois, the strongest Indian confederation on the continent, were the relentless, cruel enemies of the French and the allies of England, a fact the importance of which cannot be overestimated.

over the vast northern wilds from the Kennebec to the strait of Mackinac, with the aid of the Franciscans and the Jesuits establishing missions and trading posts along the rivers and lakes. "Peaceful, benign, beneficent," says Parkman, "were the weapons of this conquest. France aimed to subdue, not by the sword but by the cross; not to overwhelm and crush the nations. She invaded but to convert, to civilize and embrace them among her children."



French Explorations and Settlements

32. The French in Florida. — In 1562, Coligny,[1] the leader of the Huguenots, or French Protestants, decided to found a colony in America, and John Ribaut[2] led an expedition to

[1] Coligny (Co-leen'ye). [2] Ribaut (Ree-bo').

South Carolina, where a fort was built at Port Royal. Leaving thirty settlers, Ribaut returned to France. The settlement was a failure. The colonists mutinied, put to sea in a worthless, leaky vessel, and would have perished probably, had they not been picked up by an English slave vessel which took them to London. The following year, 1564, a second party of three vessels, under the leadership of Laudonnière,[1] built a fort on the St. Johns river in Florida and called it Fort Caroline, in honor of the king of France, Charles IX. Here they were joined later by Ribaut with reënforcements.

33. Menendez destroys the French Settlement. — Spain claimed Florida by right of the discovery of Columbus and Ponce de Leon's exploration. Accordingly, an officer of the royal navy, Pedro Menendez,[2] was sent to drive out the French. The French saw with alarm the Spanish vessels off the mouth of the river, and at once preparations were made by both forces for an attack. Menendez, however, sailed down the coast a short distance and landing built a fort, which in honor of the day he called St. Augustine (1565). This was the first permanent European settlement within the present limits of the United States.[3] Ribaut followed a few days later, hoping to catch the Spaniards unprepared. Just as the French ships were bearing down on the enemy a hurricane scattered the squadron in all directions. Menendez,

[1] Laudonnière (Low-don-nee-air').

[2] Pedro Menendez (Pay'dro May-nen'daith).

[3] Twenty-one years later St. Augustine was attacked by the English under Drake and destroyed, but it was rebuilt.

in the meantime, had hurried to Fort Caroline and easily captured it. Every man in the garrison was put to death.[1]

34. De Gourgues's Revenge. — To avenge his countrymen, a Frenchman named De Gourgues[2] fitted out, at his own expense, a secret expedition of three vessels. Sailing for Florida, he surprised the Spanish garrison that guarded the Spanish fort and hanged every man within it. As no further attempts at colonization were made by France in that section, Spain kept possession of Florida.

ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS

35. Drake's Voyage. — For almost one hundred years after the voyages of the Cabots, the English appeared to lose interest in the work of exploration. In 1576 Sir Martin Frobisher attempted in vain to find a northwest passage to Asia. In the following year, 1577, Sir Francis Drake sailed from Plymouth with four vessels toward South America. He lost three of his vessels, but with the remaining one, the *Pelican*, passed in October, 1578, the strait of Magellan. He journeyed northward along the western shore of South America and the coasts of Mexico and California, robbing the rich Spanish vessels and plundering the Spanish towns. He sailed as far

[1] The history of these times is filled with the stories of heartless cruelties. When the French took Havana they put all the inhabitants to the sword, while the English corsairs always put to death the Spanish sailors they captured. The shipwrecked mariners of the Armada were butchered in attempting to save themselves on the coast of Ireland. This, however, is no justification for the inhuman barbarities of Menendez.

[2] De Gourgues (Dĕ Goorg).

north as Oregon, and then, returning because of the cold, made a landing near the present city of San Francisco and took possession of the country in the name of the British crown, calling it New Albion.[1] He returned by way of the cape of Good Hope, and thus made the second circumnavigation of the world.

In 1578 Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained from Queen Elizabeth a charter which granted to him any new land he might discover in America. In the colony he intended to found he hoped to give a refuge to the persecuted Catholics of England. He made three voyages. On the third, in 1583, he touched Newfoundland, and claimed it for the queen, but he and his ship were lost at sea on the return voyage.[2]

36. The Raleigh Colonists. — Gilbert's grant was now transferred to his half-brother, the famous Sir Walter Raleigh, and in 1584 he obtained from Elizabeth permission to make a settlement upon any territory not already occupied by any Christian power. The expedition landed at Roanoke island, off the coast of the present state of North Carolina. So favorable were the reports that Elizabeth called it Virginia, in honor of herself. In the following year, 1585, emigrants from England landed, and a town was founded. It was a signal failure. All who did not perish from starvation

[1] Albion was the name given to England because of the white (Latin, *albus*) cliffs of Dover. As the coast here resembled the English shore, Drake named it New Albion.

[2] John Davis, an English navigator, attempted in three voyages (1585-1587) to find a northwest passage. He discovered the strait that bears his name.

returned with Sir Francis Drake, who happened to be sailing homeward that way. Among the articles brought by Raleigh's colonists to England were dried tobacco leaves and potatoes. He planted these potatoes on his estate in Ireland. They did not come into general use, however, before the eighteenth century. In 1587 Raleigh determined to send out another colony, this time to Chesapeake bay, under John White as governor.

English Explorations

The settlement was for some unknown reason made again on Roanoke island, and White returned to London for supplies, leaving with the colonists his wife, his daughter, and his granddaughter, Virginia Dare, the first child born of English parents in America. He was detained in England for three years, probably because of the war with Spain, and when he finally reached the site of the settlement not a trace of the colonists could be found. They had disappeared, and the mystery has never been solved.[1]

[1] The only trace of the lost colony was the word "Croatoan" cut in the bark of a tree. This was the name of a small island near by, but nothing was found there, however, to show the fate of the colonists.

Raleigh's funds were now exhausted. He had spent an equivalent in our money of one million dollars, and his interests were assigned later to a stock company of merchants, who, however, made no effort to continue Raleigh's work.

37. The Voyages of Gosnold and Pring. — In March, 1602, an English navigator, Bartholomew Gosnold, sailing westward directly across the Atlantic from the Azores instead of following the long, circuitous route by way of the West Indies and Florida, reached a cape which he called cape Cod from the large number of codfish found in the waters thereabout. Passing southward, he landed and built a trading house on one of the Elizabeth islands at the mouth of Buzzards bay. Filling his ships with a valuable cargo of sassafras and cedar logs, he prepared to return, but the colonists refused to remain; hence all returned to England. Gosnold accomplished nothing except perhaps to show a short route across the Atlantic.

In 1603 Martin Pring, in search of sassafras, visited Plymouth harbor, calling it Whitsunday bay. Two years later, 1605, George Weymouth cruised along the coast of Maine.

SUMMARY

The Spanish. — Ponce de Leon, in 1513, visited Florida and gave it its name. His attempt to found a colony eight years later was a failure.

Cortés, in 1519, sailed for Mexico, which he conquered two years later, destroying forever the power of the Aztec confederacy.

De Ayllon, in 1526, founded a colony on the James river in Virginia. In the following year the colony was abandoned.

De Narvaez, in 1528, led an expedition to conquer the lands north of the gulf of Mexico. All the members except four perished, including Narvaez.

De Soto, in 1539, attempted to conquer Florida. He discovered the Mississippi, but his expedition was a failure.

Coronado, in 1540, explored the Southwest as far north as Nebraska, discovering the cañon of the Colorado.

The French: In the North. — In 1524 Verrazano explored the coast of North America from cape Hatteras to the bay of Fundy.

Jacques Cartier, in 1534, discovered the gulf of St. Lawrence. In the following year he discovered the St. Lawrence river and gave the name Montreal to the site of the present city.

In 1608 Champlain founded Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America.

The French: In the South. — In 1562 Ribaut attempted to found a settlement, Fort Caroline, in Florida. In 1565 Menendez destroyed the French fort and founded St. Augustine, the oldest city in the United States.

The English. — In 1578 Sir Francis Drake made the second circumnavigation of the world.

In 1578 Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a charter and made three fruitless voyages. Sir Walter Raleigh took up the work and attempted to colonize Virginia. His efforts were a failure.

In 1587, under Raleigh's patronage, a colony was established on Roanoke island, with John White as governor. White went back to England for supplies, and on his return after three years' absence no trace of the colony could be found.

In 1602 Gosnold explored the north Atlantic coast; in 1603 Pring visited the harbor now called Plymouth; in 1605 Weymouth visited the coast of Maine. These three voyages accomplished little of importance.

CHAPTER III

THE EARLY MISSIONARIES

38. The Religious Orders in Florida. — While the settlements were being established, the religious welfare of the Indians was not overlooked. In 1566 the Jesuit Fathers, Pedro Martinez[1] and John Regel, were sent by St. Francis Borgia, superior of the Jesuits, to found a mission in Florida. On arriving off that coast Father Martinez landed to explore the shore. Scarcely had he done so when a gale arose, driving the vessel out to sea. Father Martinez was quickly surrounded by the savage Indians and put to death. Ten years later other Jesuits arrived to establish missions; they learned the Indian language and opened schools. An attempt to found a mission on Chesapeake bay was made by the Jesuits under Father Segura.[2] Scarcely had their vessel departed when they were killed by the Indians. The remaining Jesuits throughout Florida were thereupon recalled and sent to Mexico.

The Franciscans now took up the missionary work in Florida, and Father Pareja[3] translated many religious books into the native dialects. Fearful persecutions broke out from time to time; the missions were

[1] Martinez (Mah-tee'naith).
[2] Segura (Say-goo'rah).
[3] Pareja (Pah-ray'ha).

destroyed, and the missionaries fell victims to the fury of the savages.[1]

39. The Missionaries of New France; the Récollets and the Jesuits. — In 1614 four Récollets,[2] a branch of the Franciscans, arrived in New France to assist Champlain in his noble efforts to civilize the savage tribes. They were the first priests to settle in Canada. They established missions along the St. Lawrence river, and preached to the Algonquins and Hurons in the language of those tribes. In 1625 they invited the Jesuits to share with them the glorious work of teaching. The Jesuits accepted the invitation and were soon carrying the Gospel far and wide in the wilderness and along the lakes and rivers.[3]

In 1629 the English captured Quebec, and the Récollets and Jesuits were transported to England. Canada did not remain long in the hands of England, for the

[1] Proceeding to the town of Topequi, the Indians burst into the house of Father Blas Rodriguez. The missionary endeavored to show them the wickedness and folly of their conduct, which would entail punishment here and hereafter, but finding his words of no avail, he asked the Indians to allow him to say Mass. They granted his request, moved by a respect which they could not understand; and the good priest, with his expectant murderers for his congregation, offered the Holy Sacrifice for the last time and then knelt down before the altar to receive the death blow. — Dr. J. G. Shea, *Hist. Cath. Church U. S.*, I, 154.

[2] Récollets (Ray-col-lay').

[3] They penetrated the Indian towns, lived with the savages, bore unparalleled hardships, ministered to the wretched, instilled the teachings of Christianity into the minds of any who would give them a hearing, and thought no danger or sacrifice great enough to deter them from carrying on their work. The Indian world was their parish. Wherever they went they made keen observation of all they saw, and reported to their superior in France in a remarkable series of letters called the

treaty of peace in 1632 secured Canada again to France. The Jesuits resumed missionary labors in Canada the same year. When Montreal was founded in 1644 the Sulpicians established themselves and soon founded schools and seminaries in and near Montreal, but the Jesuits had practically entire charge of the great tracts of land to the north and west.

40. The Huron Missions; Father Jogues and the Iroquois. — Under the zealous Fathers Brebœuf,[1] Lallemand, and Daniel, all three destined to suffer martyrdom under the most horrible tortures, the Hurons were visited and missions established along the Great Lakes. Fathers Raymbaut and Jogues[2] visited the Chippewas and made plans to journey to the great plains of the far West. On one of the expeditions Father Jogues was returning to his missions from Quebec with his companion René Goupil,[3] when they fell into the hands of the ferocious Mohawks. They were treated with inhuman cruelty. Their nails were torn out, some of their fingers sawed off, their bodies burned and hacked, and they were finally compelled to undergo the terrible journey to the Indian settlement on the Mohawk. Here René Goupil was killed, but Father Jogues made his escape in a Dutch

Jesuit Relations. They carefully mapped the scenes of their labors; they journeyed all over the valleys of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi; they discovered all the important lakes and tributary streams of the great valley. Although the fathers served so faithfully, most of them met violent deaths at the hands of the savages whom they had come to help. — THORPE'S *History of the American People*, p. 27.

[1] Brebœuf (Brẹh-bŭf′).

[2] Jogues (Zhōg).

[3] René Goupil (Rĕ-nay′ Goo-peel′).

vessel and was hospitably received in New York, whence he sailed for France. Two years later he returned to Montreal and was sent to the Mohawks to ratify a treaty of peace. He again returned to Montreal; but his desire to establish a mission among the savage Mohawks led him to again journey into their country, where he was treacherously seized and killed Oct. 18, 1646. A shrine at Auriesville, N.Y., marks the spot of his martyrdom.

The Iroquois now spread death and destruction on every side; their war parties swept along the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence river, cutting off the trade of the French with the West and rendering the journeys of the missionaries impossible. Dissension arose, however, in the confederacy, and the Onondagas sought a treaty of peace with the French and asked for the establishment of a French colony. The other Iroquois tribes, except the Mohawks, also made a treaty, and accordingly a colony was founded on lake Onondaga by the French. Four Jesuits accompanied the colonists, founding chapels and traveling through the tribes preaching the word of God. The missions prospered, and a bright future opened before the faithful colonists, when an Indian plot to destroy the entire settlement was discovered. By a stratagem[1] the French were enabled to withdraw and reach Quebec in safety. The work among the Iroquois had been apparently unsuccessful, but the Jesuits were not discouraged. After some severe defeats at the hands of the French

[1] The Indians were invited to a banquet, at which they so gorged themselves that they soon fell into a deep sleep. The French took advantage of their helplessness and fled from the colony.

regular troops, the Iroquois sought peace, and in 1667 the Jesuits were again in the Iroquois country. Missions were established among each of the five tribes, but the rivalry between the French and English destroyed to a great extent the work of the good missionaries; one by one the missions were closed, and the country of the Iroquois was again left a prey to the warring tribes of the confederacy.

41. The Ottawa Missions. — In 1660 Father René Ménard set out on his missionary labors to the lands of the Ottawas. After incredible hardships, — fording rivers, penetrating the trackless forests, suffering from heat and cold, — he reached the bay, now called Keweenaw, on the south shore of lake Superior. Here he founded a mission. "The nearest altar of the living God," says Dr. Shea, "to that raised by this aged and intrepid priest was that of the Sulpicians at Montreal, yet the altars of Santa Fe and St. Inigoes (Maryland) were but little more remote. The aged priest stood alone in the heart of the continent, with no fellow priest and scarcely a fellow man of European race within a thousand miles of him." The following year, in attempting to reach an Indian tribe near the headwaters of the Mississippi, he strayed from his companions and was never again heard from.

In 1667 Father Claude Allouez,[1] superior of the western missions, carried the Gospel through the present state of Wisconsin and the upper part of Michigan. He established a mission at Green bay and built up that

[1] Allouez (Al-lway').

of Sault Ste. Marie.[1] In every direction the tireless, faithful Jesuit penetrated the forest, preaching the Gospel, instructing the children, and teaching the Indians the ways of civilization.

42. The Maine Missions. — Fathers Biard and Massé had established in 1613 a mission on Mount Desert island, but it was destroyed by the English.

In 1633 the Capuchin Fathers, aided by Cardinal Richelieu[2] of France, established missions and schools for the Indians along the coast from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the Kennebec.

In 1646 Father Druillets was sent to the Abenakis on the Kennebec river. He was also intrusted with the duty of visiting the authorities of the English colonies in New England to secure a compact for trade and an alliance against the Indians, especially the Iroquois. He was hospitably received in Boston, although the most bitter penal laws were in force against the Jesuits. The following year he visited New Haven to meet delegates from the New England colonies, but his mission was not successful. He soon returned to Canada, and during the next thirty-six years there was little or no missionary work among the Abenakis. In 1688 the Jesuits returned and had scarcely resumed their labors when war broke out in Europe between England and France. At once the horrors of Indian warfare swept like a forest fire from the St. Lawrence southward. The Indian settlements along the Penobscot were burned and the churches

[1] Sault Ste. Marie (Soo Sĕnt Ma-ree′).
[2] Richelieu (Reesh-le-uh′).

destroyed by the English colonists and their allies. In August, 1724, Norridgewock was captured by the English, and brave Father Rale,[1] the faithful friend of the Abenakis, fell at the first onset. The church was plundered and destroyed, and the English returned in triumph from their errand of destruction.

[1] Father Rale came to America at the age of thirty-two and, after journeys in the West, spent twenty-five years among the Abenakis. He wrote a dictionary of their language and was one of the most heroic of the many brave Jesuits who faced death hourly for the faith. Though he knew there was a price on his head, he never fled from danger, and at last fell at his post of duty.

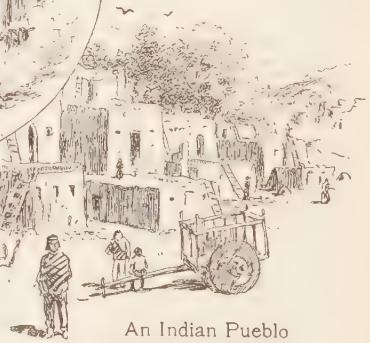
CHAPTER IV

THE INDIANS

43. Their Appearance, Civilization, and Government. — Let us now glance at the barbarous tribes that occupied practically the entire country. These natives were called Indians by Columbus because he believed the newly discovered land to be a part of India.

An Indian Camp

As a rule, the Indians were copper-colored and had small black eyes, straight black hair, high cheek bones, and beardless faces. When Columbus arrived they had spread over all the western hemisphere. The Indians in the far West and Northwest were of a ferocious nature, living



An Indian Pueblo

in wigwams. These wigwams were circular in shape, made with poles joined together at the top. They were covered with skins or bark and had an upper opening by which the smoke might escape. The Indians moved constantly from place to place and subsisted on game and fish. They cultivated the soil very little and made no progress in the arts except in the weaving of baskets.

In the Southwest lived the Pueblo Indians, who had advanced considerably toward civilization. Their houses of sun-dried brick were built on the plateaus or in the cliffs of the vast cañons; hence they were called "Cliff Dwellers."[1] They made cloth and pottery and tilled the soil.[2]

East of the Mississippi the development of the Indians was more marked. They raised maize or Indian corn and many vegetables; they lived in villages, in long houses, large enough to accommodate at least twenty-five families. In these houses dwelt a clan, that is, all who were descended from the same female ancestor. Each clan had its own symbol or mark, called the "totem," such

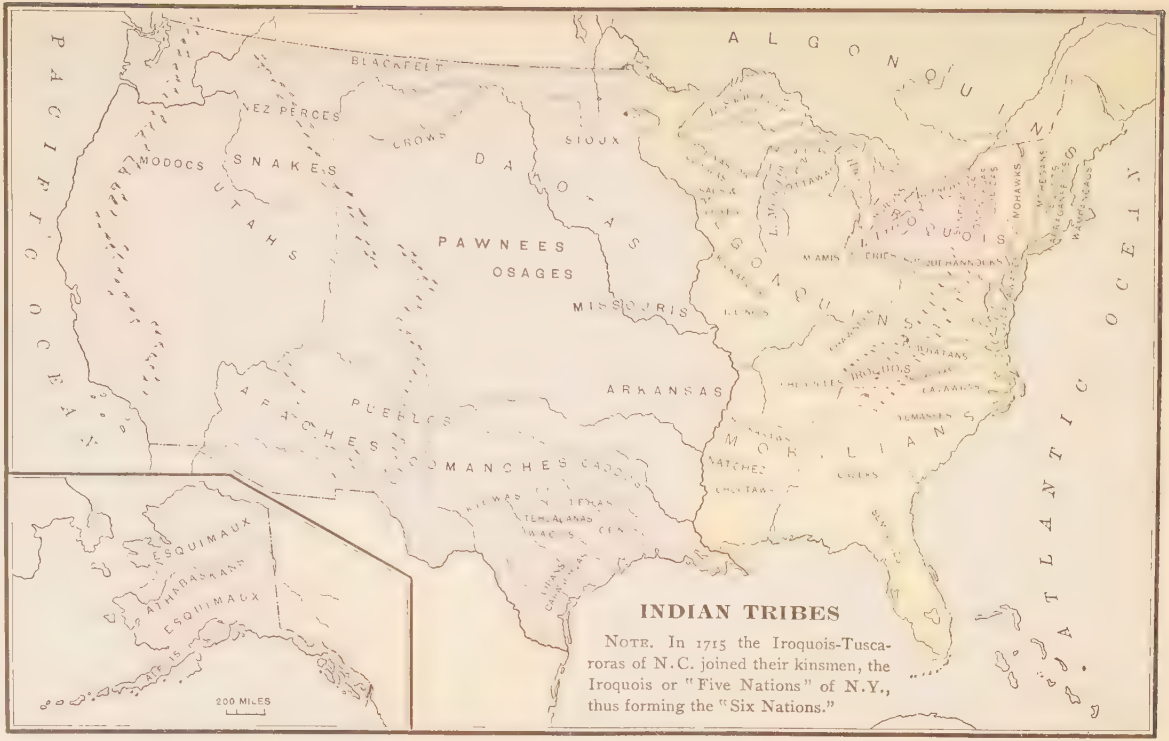
[1] Throughout the middle West hundreds of mounds and earthworks, large and small, have been found. They were supposed for a long time to have been built by a quite civilized race which had disappeared before the landing of Columbus. This view is no longer held. "It is enough to say," remarks Major Powell of the United States Geological Survey, "that the Mound Builders were the Indian tribes discovered by the white man."

[2] There has been an exaggerated impression of the number of savages at the time when our country began to be settled. How many there were it is impossible to estimate with any approach to exactness. Bancroft judges that the total number on the whole area east of the Mississippi, now covered by the United States, was not far from one hundred and eighty thousand. — FISHER, *The Colonial Era*, p. 11.

as the wolf or the bear, and they held in great reverence the animal whose image was their emblem. The head officer or magistrate was elected and was called the "sachem." The clan elected also its war chiefs and held all its property in common except weapons and ornaments. The union of many clans formed a tribe, which was ruled by a council of the sachems of the different clans.[1]

44. Implements, Weapons, and Habits of the Indians. — The early Indians used the bow and arrow and hatchets with stone heads. Later they obtained from the white man firearms and became most expert in their use. They wore furs of various animals and buffalo hides; on their feet they wore moccasins made of deerskin or the hide of the moose. The Indians were swift of foot, alert, and very skillful hunters; they knew the habits of every animal and bird in the forest, of every fish of the river; they could follow a trail with amazing skill; their life in the woods taught them to be quick-witted, patient, and keen sighted and trained them to endure calmly heat or cold, hunger or thirst; they bore physical pain with marvelous bravery; their self-control was wonderful; under the most horrible torture no cry escaped from the lips of the Indian; on the contrary, he generally sneered at his torturers.

[1] They [the Indians] have traditions but no history. Civilized people erect monuments of various kinds to commemorate their own deeds and those of their ancestors. Throughout the length and breadth of the United States there does not exist, and probably there never did exist, a monument of any kind deliberately erected by an Indian or a tribe to commemorate an event in Indian history. — THORPE'S *History of the American People*, pp. 1–2.



INDIAN TRIBES

NOTE. In 1715 the Iroquois-Tuscaroras of N.C. joined their kinsmen, the Iroquois or "Five Nations" of N.Y., thus forming the "Six Nations."

The Indian treated his captives with merciless cruelty, the Iroquois frequently burning them at the stake.[1] At times they adopted a captive into the tribe if he appeared to be brave and fearless.

45. Method of Warfare; Religion; Wampum. — The Indians were always at strife with each other. When preparing for war they painted their faces with stripes of yellow, blue, and red; with unearthly war whoops, they then went forth armed with clubs, tomahawks, spears, and bows and arrows on their path of destruction and bloodshed.

They wore a lock of hair called the "scalp lock." To kill an enemy and to tear off that part of the scalp which bore the lock, wearing it later at the belt, was the highest triumph of the Indian. They never fought in the open field, as the red man's idea of military glory was simply to get the scalp of his enemy and to save his own.

Their religion was a sort of nature and ancestor worship, the rites of which were carried on mainly by medicine men, but they had no temples and no priesthood. They believed a spirit — the Manitou — dwelt in every plant and tree, stream and lake. They looked to a life beyond the grave, a happy hunting ground, to which only the brave would be admitted.

To ratify a treaty, the Indians smoked a peace pipe called the "calumet." In dealing with each other they

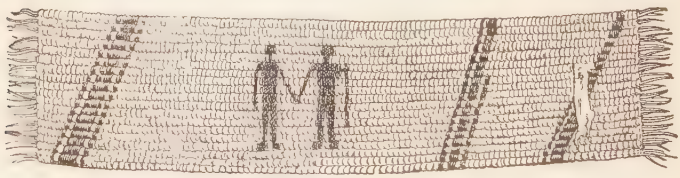
[1] When, for instance, the Jesuit Father Brebœuf fell into their hands, they burned him from head to foot, cut away his lower lip and jaw, and thrust a red-hot iron down his throat. After four hours of this fearful torture they cut open his breast and tore out his heart.

used seashells, which they called "wampum." They kept a record of their treaties by means of the belt of wampum, the beads telling exactly what was done. Later the wampum became a medium of exchange for the colonists

Indian Calumet or Pipe of Peace

also, in dealing not only with the Indians but with each other. This was very important, since it allowed the settlers to establish a regular trade in furs and fish with the Indians and to sell them hardware and blankets.

46. Habits and Industries. — The Indian had no idea of providing for the future. In time of plenty he gorged himself; in time of famine he starved. While he was



Wampum, or Indian Money, made of Strings of Shells or Beads

capable of the greatest endurance, he was by nature indolent and shiftless. While the men fought, fished, or hunted, the women were compelled to do all the hard work, — to till the soil and bear the burdens in moving from place to place.

The Indians were very skillful in making bows and arrows, stone hatchets, clothing from furs, and especially the birch-bark canoe, by which they were able to travel easily and quickly over the lakes and rivers from one part of the country to another.

The Indians taught the settlers many valuable things, —the worth of Indian corn, the modes of hunting and fishing, the value of the canoe, the wigwam form of tent, the use of the moccasin for traveling in the forest and of the snowshoe for walking on the surface of the snow in winter in search of food.

They also taught the colonists how to make corn grow in the forest by burning or girdling the trees, thereby killing them and letting in the sunshine. Thus the crops grew without the tedious labor of cutting down the trees.[1]

[1] For further reading on the Indians the pupil may consult Grinnell's *Story of the Indian*, Dellenbaugh's *North Americans of Yesterday*, and G. E. Ellis' *The Red Man and the White Man.*

CHAPTER V

PERMANENT COLONIAL SETTLEMENTS

ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS

Virginia, 1607

47. London and Plymouth Companies. — At the opening of the seventeenth century England had profited little by the discoveries of the Cabots. In 1606 she opened a new era in her history by granting a charter to two commercial companies,[1] one composed chiefly of London, the other of Plymouth, merchants, and therefore called the London and Plymouth companies. A charter was granted for colonizing purposes in Virginia, at that time the name of the whole territory in America claimed by England. In the charter the king granted to the London Company the sole right to colonize the territory between cape Fear and the mouth of the Potomac — from thirty-four to thirty-eight degrees of north latitude; to the Plymouth Company he granted a similar right to plant colonies from the Hudson river to the bay of Fundy — forty-one to forty-five degrees of north

[1] The immense financial loss to Raleigh in his attempts to found a colony deterred others from a similar fate. As trading companies had been enormously enriched by their commerce with the East, it was believed a company could better carry on so vast an enterprise. Hence a new company was formed and obtained the charter.

latitude. A middle strip from the mouth of the Potomac to the Hudson — from the thirty-eighth to the forty-first degree of north latitude — was open to whichever of the two companies should first colonize it. It was provided, however, that neither company was to establish a colony within one hundred miles of any existing settlement.[1]

48. The Popham Colony in Maine, 1607. — With the charters secured, both companies fitted out ships. The Plymouth colony, under George Popham, sailed (May 31, 1607) for the coast of the present state of Maine and, landing at the mouth of the Kennebec, made a settlement. It was an absolute failure, and in the following year, after intense suffering, the settlement was abandoned and the colonists returned to England.

49. Settlement of Jamestown, 1607; a Period of Distress. — The colony of the London Company with three ships reached

[1] Among the provisions of the charter were the following:

1. The settlers were entitled to all the rights and privileges that were enjoyed by Englishmen at home.

2. Each land grant should extend inland one hundred miles.

3. The king should have one fifth of all the precious metals discovered.

4. The colony should be governed by a council, appointed by the king.

5. Each company might coin money, punish crime, establish custom tariffs, and make laws subject to the veto of the king.

6. All goods were to be owned in common, the products of the soil being deposited in a public magazine or storehouse.

7. The king also sent instructions that the Church of England should be established in the colonies.

Chesapeake bay, and named the capes at its mouth cape Henry and cape Charles in honor of the two sons of King James. Entering a broad river, which they named the James in honor of the king, they landed at a point thirty miles up the river. Here they made a settlement, which they called Jamestown. *This was the first permanent English settlement in America.*

The colony was made up largely of men who were unused to work, — so-called English gentlemen,[1] — and instead of building houses, planting seed, and preparing for the future, they looked for gold.[2] Fever and famine overtook them. In four months one half of their number was dead. At this critical time a fearless, restless adventurer, John Smith, took charge.[3] He procured food from the Indians, built huts, and explored the bays and inlets of the coasts, the rivers, and the surrounding

[1] They were going to a wilderness in which as yet not a house was standing and there were forty-eight gentlemen to four carpenters. — BANCROFT, *History of the United States*, I, 88.

[2] Under the charter all the provisions were placed in a common storehouse for the use of those who wished to take them. The result was that the lazy helped themselves generously, and did not work, while the industrious had to labor not only for themselves but for those who were idle. The result was disaster, as any one might have foretold without being a prophet.

[3] Captain John Smith was born in England in 1580. According to his own story, he was left an orphan at an early age and served as a soldier under the flags of France and Holland. He embarked for the East and was thrown overboard, but saved himself by swimming ashore. After wandering through Europe he again became a soldier to fight against the Turks. He was taken prisoner and treated so cruelly that he killed his master and escaped, finally reaching England in time to take part in the colonization of Virginia. Shortly after his arrival he was captured by the Indians and condemned to death. His head

country. Corn seed was planted, and his energy for two years saved the colony from utter ruin.

50. Arrival of Reënforcements; Dale as Governor. — About two years after the colony was founded five hundred new colonists started from England under the direction of Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Somers. The newcomers were a wretched set of men from the jails and streets of London. While the vessel bearing Gates and Somers was wrecked on the Bermuda islands, the rest of the expedition arrived. Gates and Somers at length reached Jamestown in a boat of their own construction. The colony was in a pitiable condition. John Smith had been wounded and had returned to England. Of the five hundred colonists that had arrived a few months before, only sixty were alive; all were discouraged, and many resolved to return to England. Embarking on June 8, 1610, they sailed down the James, when they met Lord Delaware, the newly appointed governor, coming up the river with a fleet stored with provisions. Thereupon all returned to Jamestown. Lord Delaware remained a few months only, and for the next five years his successor, Sir Thomas Dale, ruled the colony like a tyrant. He required attendance at the service of the Church of England under the direst penalties, and criticism of that church was punishable with death.

was already on the stone and a stalwart Indian stood over him with a club to beat out his brains, when Pocahontas, the daughter of the chief Powhatan, begged her father to save Smith's life. The request was granted, and Smith was adopted into the tribe. The best historical students, however, reject the Pocahontas story as a myth.

51. The New Charter; Abolition of Communism; Cultivation of Tobacco. — A new charter had been brought over in 1610 by Lord Delaware, which made many modifications of the original one. It provided that the government of the colony should be placed entirely in the hands of the council in England; that the land grants, at first extending only one hundred miles inland, were to run from sea to sea, — from the Atlantic to the Pacific; that no one could settle in Virginia unless he took the oath of supremacy, — that is, to acknowledge the king as the head of the church. This of course shut out many Protestants as well as Catholics from the colony.[1]

One of Dale's first acts was the abolition of the system of placing the products in a public warehouse for the public use. According to this plan the industrious worker supported the idler. Hereafter every man must support himself, and to each settler were granted three acres of land. Conditions were improved, and the success of the colony was assured when John Rolfe,[2] in 1612, began the planting of tobacco. The trade was extremely profitable. New settlers arrived daily, and the output of tobacco increased in eight years over four hundred and twenty thousand pounds. In

[1] The penal laws against the Catholics were very severe. They could not hold office, but were punished with a severe fine if they attempted to vote. No priest was allowed in the colony. In a court of justice a Catholic could not be a witness.

[2] John Rolfe had married Pocahontas. She was the daughter of the Indian chief, Powhatan. The marriage of Rolfe to Pocahontas had the good effect of rendering Powhatan friendly to the settlers.

1670, fifty-one years from Rolfe's first crop, Virginia produced twelve million pounds. So extensive now became its cultivation that a law was passed compelling every man to plant a certain number of acres of corn for the food supply.

52. Effects of Tobacco Culture; Introduction of Slavery, 1619. — The widespread cultivation of tobacco produced unexpected results. Up to this time there was no commerce of any value with Europe, but the sale of tobacco started a profitable trade. The news of the success of the tobacco crop induced many to come to Virginia from England to take up its cultivation. Again, the growing of tobacco required many and cheap laborers. Accordingly criminals were sent from the jails of England, orphans from asylums, and waifs from the streets. They were called "indentured"[1] servants, but were virtually slaves, although after a service of years, generally from seven to ten, they were set free.[2] In August, 1619, a Dutch ship came up the James river with twenty negroes, who were sold as slaves to the

[1] The agreement with a servant was made by a contract across which extended a cutting like the teeth of a saw. Hence the word "indenture," to cut into points like a row of teeth. The paper was then separated, one part being kept by the master, the other by the servant. If both parts when put together exactly fitted, it was evidence that they were the same contract.

[2] The colony was composed almost entirely of men. To induce them to settle down for life and make Virginia their home, the London Company sent over ninety young women as wives for the settlers. Whoever could give one hundred and twenty pounds of good tobacco, worth about ninety dollars, could select one of the young women for a wife, if she were agreeable. The plan was successful and later others came.

planters. This was the beginning of negro slavery in Virginia. Slavery increased until at last there were slaves in every colony in America.

53. The Establishment of Representative Government. — Difficulties with their governor induced the colonists to ask the London Company for a better form of government. A new governor, Sir George Yeardley, was appointed. He requested the colonists, who were scattered to the number of four thousand through eleven settlements, or boroughs, as they were called, to send two representatives to an assembly. This body came together in a little church at Jamestown, July 30, 1619. This House of Burgesses, the first legislative body in America, was the beginning of popular, representative government.

54. Virginia loses its Charter. — King James, however, had become displeased with the London Company and brought a suit to annul its charter. The suit was decided in the king's favor, and Virginia became a royal province, passing under the direct control of the king. Nevertheless, the people continued to make most of their own laws. Before James I had effected a change in the government of the colony he died (May, 1625) and was succeeded on the throne by his son, Charles I. Seven years after his accession the king diminished the territory of Virginia by a grant of Maryland on the north and of the Carolinas on the south. Civil war soon broke out in England, and in 1649 Charles I was beheaded.[1]

[1] At this time many sympathizers of the unfortunate king, called "Royalists," or "Cavaliers," emigrated to America and settled in Virginia. From them many illustrious Virginia families trace their descent.

When his son, Charles II, finally obtained the throne he granted for thirty-one years to two favorites, Lord Culpepper and Lord Arlington, "the entire tract of land and water commonly called Virginia," with all the rents and revenues. In the meantime, while the people were suffering from a series of oppressive laws, the Indians took up the tomahawk and went on the warpath against the colonists. Upon the neglect of the royal governor, Berkeley, to take stringent measures against the Indians, Nathaniel Bacon asked for permission to enlist volunteers. His request was refused, and he thereupon organized companies and chastised the Indians. The governor called it treason, but in view of Bacon's popularity with the people he pardoned him. A new assembly met and repealed many of the unpopular laws,[1] passing others for the relief of the people. Civil war, however, broke out with Bacon in charge of the forces against Berkeley, who was soon defeated and fled. Jamestown was thereupon utterly destroyed by Bacon.

In the midst of his successes Bacon died, and the rebellion fell to pieces. Berkeley thereupon punished

[1] Among the laws enacted in England against which the colonists emphatically protested were the Navigation Laws. They first prohibited the importation of commodities into England in any ships except those belonging to England, the English colonies, or the country which produced the commodities. Later certain articles — sugar, tobacco, and indigo among them — were to be shipped to no country but England. Finally it was enacted in 1663 that European products should not be received in the colonies from foreign vessels, thus giving a complete monopoly of the colonial commerce to English merchants, who, protected from competition, could charge high prices on goods to the colonists and pay low prices on goods from the colonies.

with death twenty of the rebellious leaders.[1] Bacon's rebellion was a protest against the class legislation and the corruption of Berkeley's government. He attempted to secure for the people their rights against the ever-increasing tyranny of the aristocratic party, which tried to evade taxation while plundering the public treasury. Though Bacon's rebellion failed, we must admire him for his efforts to better the condition of the people.

SUMMARY

In 1607 the first permanent English settlement in America was made in Jamestown.

In 1619 was held the first legislative assembly in the New World. The same year marked the introduction of negro slavery in Virginia.

In 1676 Nathaniel Bacon rose in rebellion against the unjust laws and lax administration of the colony. New laws were enacted, but the rebellion failed of permanent results.

New Netherland, or New York, 1614

55. Henry Hudson and the Dutch. — At the beginning of the seventeenth century the Dutch were one of the foremost commercial peoples of the world,[2] and their country, Holland, was one of the most prosperous in

[1] Said Charles II of Berkeley: "The old fool has put to death more people in that naked country than I did here for the murder of my father." Charles II had executed only six of the fifty-nine judges who had voted for the death sentence of his father, Charles I.

[2] The Dutch in the seventeenth century had one half of the carrying trade of the continent of Europe, and Amsterdam was one of the greatest marts in the world.

Europe. Their sails were upon every sea, and they were anxious for a short route to the Indies, where abounded the spices, silks, and precious stones so eagerly desired in the markets of Europe. In 1609 the Dutch East Indian Company, the most successful trading corporation in the world, sent Henry Hudson to find this route to the East. He came in sight of the Maine

The *Half Moon* on the Hudson

coast and cruised southward to the mouth of Chesapeake bay. Turning northward again, he entered the present harbor of New York and explored in 1609 the mighty river that now bears his name.[1] In his vessel, the *Half Moon*, he sailed as far north as the site of Albany, exploring the banks and looking for an entrance to the Pacific. He received parties of Indians whom he treated with great kindness. They were of

[1] Verrazano on his great voyage (p. 27) discovered the mouth of the Hudson in 1524. Estevan Gomez, sailing from Spain, visited it in 1525, naming it River of Saint Anthony. Hudson was the first to explore it thoroughly, calling it River of the Mountains. It was later justly given his name.

the Iroquois league, the strongest Indian power in America, and ever afterward the Dutch and Iroquois preserved ties of the strongest friendship. From the narrowing width of the river, Hudson knew he had not found the route to the East. On his return he sent to Amsterdam a glowing account [1] of the country he had visited and of the great possibilities of the fur trade.[2] At once traders poured in from all parts of Europe,[3] and numerous posts were established for dealing with the Indians.

56. Settlement of Manhattan; the Dutch West India Company. — Along the Hudson river, called by them the North river, the Dutch built trading places, — one in 1614 on Manhattan island, which became the present city of New York, and another at Fort Orange, on the present site of Albany. Southward they pushed their trading posts, one being built near the present site of Camden, N.J., on the Delaware, called by them the South river. They named the country New Netherland and claimed all the territory from the Delaware to the Connecticut. A new corporation called the Dutch

[1] Of the country he wrote: "The land is the finest for cultivation that I ever in my life set foot upon and it also abounds in trees of every description."

[2] England sent Hudson later to find a northwest passage. He discovered the bay and strait which bear his name, but he and his crew suffered fearfully from the intense cold. At length the crew mutinied and put Hudson with eight companions in a boat and set them adrift. The unfortunate explorer was never again seen nor heard from.

[3] Furs were of the greatest value to the Dutch traders because of the severe winters in northern Europe. Russia had supplied most of the furs up to this time.

West India Company took the place of the Dutch East India Company in 1621, with virtually supreme power over all the Dutch interests in America.

57. Purchase of Manhattan; the Patroons. — In 1626 a colony under Governor Peter Minuit was sent out to the rude trading post on Manhattan island, where a settlement was established. The Indians sold the island for trinkets worth about twenty-four dollars.[1] A fort was established, and the Indian name Manhattan was first given to the settlement, but it was later named Fort Amsterdam. This was the beginning of the present great city of New York.

Three years later the company offered a grant of land on any river or bay to the founder of a settlement of fifty persons over fifteen years of age. The grant gave to the founder, who was to be called a patroon,[2] of New Netherland a tract of sixteen miles frontage on one side of a river or eight miles on each side. The patroon had the right to appoint officers and magistrates and to act as judge in civil and criminal courts which he was permitted to establish on his lands. The settler on his part could not leave the estate to become the tenant of another. He also agreed to bring his grain to the patroon's mill and pay for the grinding; to cultivate the patroon's land for ten years; to use only cloth made in Holland; to neither fish nor hunt on the

[1] It has been reckoned that this small sum placed at interest at that time would now amount to nearly one hundred and twenty-five millions of dollars.

[2] "Patroon" means protector or benefactor, like our English word "patron."

patroon's property, and if he died without will, the patroon was to get all his property.

58. The Dutch Governors; Peter Stuyvesant. — Under a series of incompetent and corrupt governors the colony fared ill. In 1647 Peter Stuyvesant arrived as governor. He was a tyrannical, dictatorial man, who had no faith in the people. He desired to rule with absolute authority, and generally succeeded. He insisted on maintaining the Dutch Reformed Church at the public expense,[1] and severely punished dissenters. In 1656 he attacked the Swedish settlements on the Delaware and annexed them to New York. He also attempted to annex Connecticut, but failed.

The English claimed the entire coast by virtue of Cabot's exploration, and saw with a jealous eye this Dutch settlement thrust in between the Virginia and the New England colonies. In 1664 a fleet fitted out by the English king, Charles II, appeared before New Amsterdam and demanded its surrender. Stuyvesant[2] stormed in great rage and declared he would never surrender. But the town was in no condition for defense. The people were weary of Stuyvesant's arrogance, and the flag of Holland was hauled down. The province now received the name of New York, in honor of the Duke of York.

[1] A pew was set apart in the [Dutch Reformed] Church for the City Fathers; and on Sunday mornings these worthies left their homes and families early to meet in the City Hall from which, preceded by the bell-ringer and carrying their cushions of state, they marched in solemn procession to the sanctuary in the fort. — LAMB'S *History of New York.*

[2] Stuyvesant had lost a leg in the wars of Holland and was called "Old Silver Leg" by the English, and "Hard-Headed Peter" by the Dutch.

59. The Duke's Laws; Governor Dongan. — New laws, called the "Duke's laws," were enacted in 1665. They assured trial by jury, equal taxation, tenure of lands from the Duke of York, and a recognition of negro slavery. In 1673 war again broke out between Holland and England, and New York surrendered to a Dutch fleet, but it was returned to the English at the signing of the treaty of peace in 1674.

In 1683 Thomas Dongan, a native of Ireland and a Catholic, was appointed governor, and under his direction the first legislative assembly held in New York met in October of that year. A Charter of Liberties was drawn up,[1] guaranteeing freedom of conscience and religious liberty to all Christians.[2] Trial by jury was assured, and no tax could be levied without the consent of the assembly. Dongan settled the boundary dispute with Connecticut, made a peace treaty with the Indians, and did all in his power to prevent the southward march of the French.

60. Leisler's Rebellion. — After the departure of Dongan strife broke out in the colony. On the flight of James II from the throne of England a German merchant named Jacob Leisler seized the government of the colony on the pretense of holding it for the new king

[1] The Charter of Liberties was sent to England for the duke's approval, but before it was signed Charles II died; the Duke of York became king, and New York was annexed to New England under a single governor, Andros. The Charter of Liberties was repealed in 1685.

[2] The first Latin school in New York was opened by the Jesuit Fathers in 1683. The pupils were called together by the ringing of the bell in the fort.

of England. He proceeded at once to vent his hate on the Catholics. Many of the ablest and noblest men in the colony who had refused to acknowledge his authority were thrown into prison on the charge of making alliance with the Catholics.

Believing that there was danger of an invasion by the French from Canada, Leisler, in 1690, called a congress of the American colonies to attack Canada. *This was the first of the congresses that finally resulted in the Congress of Philadelphia, where our independence was proclaimed.*

On the arrival of British troops Leisler refused to give up the fort and fired on the king's soldiers, killing a number. He was soon abandoned by the people and, being captured, was tried by court-martial for murder and treason. He was found guilty and was executed (May 16, 1691).

61. Persecution of Catholics; Royal Colony. — A new assembly met after Leisler's death and reënacted Dongan's charter of 1683 with one important change, — the right of worship according to the Catholic religion was denied. In 1700 and 1701 laws were passed expelling Catholic priests from the colony; if any remained they would be punished with imprisonment for life. Any priest coming into the province of his own accord should be hanged. To Catholic laymen was denied the right to vote for any office.

In 1741 a new persecution broke out. A depraved woman claimed to have discovered a plot on the part of the Catholics and negroes to burn the town. The latent

bigotry now burst into flame, and before the panic had ceased four whites were hanged; of the negroes seventy were transported, eighteen were hanged, and fourteen burned at the stake.

From 1685, when the Duke of York ascended the English throne, until the Revolution New York remained a royal colony.

SUMMARY

In 1609 Henry Hudson, in the *Half Moon*, explored the Hudson river and gave to the Dutch possession of the country. They called it New Netherland and founded on Manhattan island the town of New Amsterdam.

In 1664 the English captured the country and called it New York.

In 1683 the first legislative assembly was held under Governor Dongan. The Charter of Liberties passed by this assembly guaranteed religious liberty and trial by jury.

New Jersey, 1617

62. Settlement by the Dutch; Grant to Berkeley and Carteret. — In 1617 the Dutch built a fort at Bergen on the west bank of the Hudson river and claimed the country as a part of New Netherland. (See map, p. 92.) This claim, however, was denied by the English. When, therefore, the English had obtained control of the province of New Netherland the Duke of York, in 1664, gave the land between New York harbor and Delaware bay to two court favorites, Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Berkeley took the southwestern portion, called West Jersey, while the

northeastern portion, called East Jersey, was given to Carteret. Carteret had been governor of the island of Jersey, off the English coast, and had defended the island against the Puritan forces during the Civil War in England. The province was therefore called, in his honor, New Jersey.

The constitution under which the settlers lived gave them a voice in the lawmaking, as no tax could be levied without the consent of the assembly of their representatives. Freedom of worship was promised; but, as was the case in most of the colonies, it was not practiced as regards Roman Catholics. In Newark only Protestant church members could vote. A party of settlers under Philip Carteret, a relative of Sir George, founded in 1664 Elizabeth, the first permanent English settlement in the state. In 1667 Newark was founded by emigrants from the New Haven colony.

63. William Penn and the Quakers; a Royal Province. — In 1673, because of endless disputes between the settlers and Berkeley, the latter sold his share to the Quakers, of whom William Penn was the leading spirit, and nine years later, on the death of Carteret, they obtained the remainder of the colony. In 1688 both East Jersey and West Jersey were added to New York and to New England under the governorship of Sir Edmund Andros. The revolution in England forced out Andros from the governorship, and in the confusion that ensued as to the right of ownership the king took the colony as a royal province, 1702. In this year liberty of conscience was proclaimed for all except Catholics

and Quakers.[1] For the next thirty-six years New Jersey was under the governor of New York, but in 1738 it was allowed to have its own governor.

SUMMARY

In 1664 the Duke of York seized and granted to his friends Berkeley and Carteret the present territory of New Jersey, which had been claimed by the Dutch. Elizabeth, the first permanent English settlement in the state, was founded in the same year.

In 1673 the Quakers purchased Berkeley's share of the territory, and in 1682 Carteret sold to them his portion.

In 1688 the entire colony was added to New York and New England, and in 1702 became a royal province.

Massachusetts; Plymouth Colony, 1620; Massachusetts Bay Colony, 1630

64. The Pilgrims in Holland; the *Mayflower*. — We have already seen (p. 51) how Popham, sent by the Plymouth Company, tried to found a settlement at the mouth of the Kennebec in 1607, and failed. In 1613 John Smith of Virginia visited this section, made a map of the coast, and gave names to the Charles river and to two of the promontories, cape Ann and cape Elizabeth. He called the entire section New England. His attempts at settlement, however, in this section were a failure.

[1] The Society of Friends or Quakers was founded by George Fox in England. He was thrust into prison, but his doctrines spread rapidly. The Quakers taught the equality of man, and they believed there should be uniformity in dress. They recognized no title and kept their heads covered before king or peasant. They refused to give testimony under oath and were unalterably opposed to war and slavery.

In 1608 a party of English Protestants who were dissatisfied with the Church of England left the little village of Scrooby. They settled in Holland, at Amsterdam, and a little later in Leyden. Finally deciding to emigrate to America, they obtained from the London Company permission to settle in New Jersey. Leaving Delfshaven in July, 1620, on the *Speedwell*, they touched at Southampton, England, where another vessel, the *Mayflower*, joined them, and together they set sail for America.

The *Speedwell* was found to be unsafe, however, and they returned. All who desired to continue crowded on to the *Mayflower*, which sailed with one hundred passengers. On November 19 they sighted the shores of cape Cod, far to the north of their destination. As this section was the property of the Plymouth Company, and they were to settle in the territory of the London Company, they started again southward. They were driven back by violent weather, and finally, anchoring in the harbor of Provincetown, they decided to get permission from the Plymouth Company to settle on their land. Some of the members, taking advantage of the fact that they were not landing in Virginia, declared their independence of all authority. The colonists, therefore, drew up in the cabin of the *Mayflower* a compact to enact "such just and equal laws . . . as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony." They elected John Carver governor, and explored the coast.

65. The Landing at Plymouth; Treaty with the Indians. — On December 21 they resolved to land at a place now

called Plymouth.[1] They suffered so severely from the cold winter and scarcity of food that one half of the colony perished during the winter and spring, among them John Carver, the governor.

The Plymouth Company was dissolved at this time, and its successor, the Council for New England, granted

Captain Myles Standish

to the Pilgrims a tract of land between the fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and extending from sea to sea, or from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

One of the wise acts of Governor Carver before his death was the peace treaty with the Indians. Early in

[1] This place had been visited by Champlain and called by him Port St. Louis.

the spring there appeared in the colony an Indian named Samoset. He had learned to speak a little English from the fishermen along the Kennebec, and welcomed the English colonists to the land. A treaty was made with Massasoit, the Indian chief, which was faithfully observed for fifty-four years.

Along Narragansett bay lived the powerful tribe named the Narragansetts, whose chief was Canonicus. They were the enemies of Massasoit. Desiring to terrify the colonists, they sent a rattlesnake skin stuffed with arrows to Governor Bradford, who was Carver's successor. Bradford filled the skin with powder and ball and sent it back. Canonicus became frightened and decided it was best to leave the colonists in peace.

The military leader of the colony was Myles Standish, the brave, energetic, heroic warrior who spread terror among the hostile Indians.

One of the most famous institutions founded in the New World by the Pilgrims was the town meeting. Here all the citizens met together and voted directly on all questions instead of through representatives. It was the purest form of democratic government. The Plymouth colony grew slowly. Nine years after its establishment it had only three hundred members, and it was finally (1691) absorbed by the Massachusetts colony.

66. The Puritans; the Massachusetts Bay Colony. — The Puritans in England now followed the example of the Pilgrims. They obtained a tract of land, stretching from three miles north of the Merrimac river to three miles south of the Charles and westward to the Pacific.

An expedition led by John Endicott sailed with sixty persons and founded Salem in 1628. In the following year the royal charter was secured, incorporating this colony as the Company of Massachusetts Bay. It was to be managed by a governor, deputy governor, and a council of eighteen assistants, to be elected annually by the members of the company. Only Puritan church members were allowed to vote.

In April, 1630, John Winthrop reached Salem with one thousand Puritans. He moved later to Charlestown, and still later to a place the Indians called Shawmut. The English named it Tri-mountain, or Tremont, because of its three hills. This name was later changed to Boston, after the English town whence many of the settlers came. A throng of immigrants now poured in, no less than twenty thousand arriving in ten years. Among the settlements were Roxbury, Dorchester, Watertown, and Newtown, or Cambridge.

The colonists under Endicott shortly after their arrival in Salem had separated from the Church of England. They established separatist churches after the model called Congregational.[1] They ordered that "no man shall be admitted to the freedom of this body politic but such as are members of some of the churches within the limits of the same." This caused trouble.

67. Roger Williams founds Providence. — In 1633 a young Welshman, Roger Williams, pastor of a church in Salem, advocated the separation of church and state

[1] Under the Congregational system each parish has its own independent, self-governing church.

and full freedom of religious belief. He also declared that the Indians, not the king, owned the land and from the Indians the land must be bought if they would have an honest and valid title. For such sentiments he was promptly ordered to England but escaped and later founded the city of Providence. At the same time Mrs. Anne Hutchinson was driven out of the Puritan colony because of her peculiar religious beliefs. She

bought the island of Aquidneck, — afterwards called Rhode Island, — as we shall see later.

68. The New England Confederation. — In 1643 the four colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts bay, Connecticut, and New Haven organized a military league, called the New England Confederation, for self-protection against the Indians as well as defense against the Dutch, who still claimed the Connecticut valley. Another reason for the union was the Civil War in England and the necessity of being prepared for the result of that struggle. Maine and Rhode Island were not invited to join the confederacy as they did not believe in Puritan ideas and were in consequence looked upon with suspicion.

The confederacy lasted for forty years and is of importance as it was an early experiment in united action by the American colonies.

69. Persecution of the Quakers. — In 1656 the first Quakers appeared in Massachusetts. Because of their independent religious views they had already been a source of the greatest trouble to the English authorities, who had tried in vain to crush them, no less than four thousand being in English jails at one time. Their appearance in Massachusetts created the greatest alarm, and they were at once shipped back to England. A law was enacted against them which provided for flogging and imprisonment. These laws did not deter the Quakers in the least. They poured into the colony, denounced the magistrates, and defied the Puritan clergy.

In 1657 another law was enacted that Quakers should have their ears cut off and their tongues pierced with red-hot irons. In 1658 the Massachusetts General Court passed a law providing the death penalty for returning Quakers, and in 1659 four of them were hanged on Boston Common, while others were flogged from town to town, imprisoned, starved, and otherwise maltreated. A reaction soon set in. While the magistrates, led chiefly by Endicott [1] and the Puritan clergy, endeavored to keep up the persecution, the people revolted, and

[1] No figure in our early history looms out of the past like Endicott's. The harsh face still looks down from under the black skull-cap; the gray moustache and pointed beard shading the determined mouth, but throwing into relief the lines of the massive jaw. He is almost heroic in his ferocious bigotry and daring. — Brooks Adams' *The Emancipation of Massachusetts*, p. 103.

gradually the Quakers enjoyed the rights that belonged to them as free-born English subjects.

70. "King" Philip's War, 1675-1676. — The treaty which had been made with Massasoit had been strictly kept until his death in 1660. Massasoit left two sons, who had been given the names Alexander and

Indians attacking a Settlement

Philip. Alexander died in 1662 after a visit to Plymouth. Philip believed he had been poisoned and at once set out to make war on the English, who were gradually settling around him nearer and nearer and compelling him to give up more of his land year by year. In 1675 Philip let loose his warriors, and for two years the horrible warfare was carried on throughout Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. At length he was hemmed in

in a swamp near Mount Hope, Rhode Island, and was killed Aug. 12, 1676, by an Indian. His hands were cut off and sent to Boston, and his head was set up on a pole in Plymouth. The war had cost the colonists six hundred fighting men and heavy war debts. A vast amount of property had been destroyed, but the Indian power in New England was broken forever.

71. The Salem Witchcraft. — There had been recurring witchcraft panics in Europe since the fifteenth century, and in England and Scotland there were several in the seventeenth century. In various parts of Massachusetts the delusion appeared, but the most violent outbreak was in Salem. The children of a Puritan minister claimed to be bewitched by an old colored woman. She confessed, and with the children brought accusations against many people in the parish. Cotton Mather, one of the most conservative of the Puritan ministers, had aided by his writings and sermons in intensifying the belief in witchcraft, and his influence was now thrown in favor of the active prosecution of the cases. This soon produced a reign of terror throughout the colony. No one was safe, and before the panic ended twenty persons had suffered death.[1] At length a reaction set in, and those in prison were released. So keenly did the colony feel its shame that a day of fast was

[1] It seemed as though the bonds of society were dissolving; nineteen persons had been hanged, one had been pressed to death and eight lay condemned; a number had fled, but their property had been seized and they were beggars; the prisons were choked while more than two hundred were accused and in momentary fear of arrest; even two dogs had been killed. — BROOKS ADAMS, *Emancipation of Mass.*, p. 227.

appointed. One of the judges who had condemned the witches was Samuel Sewall. He wrote a confession of his error with a request for forgiveness, and stood in his pew in the Old South Church while the minister read it to the congregation.

72. Loss of the Massachusetts Charter. — When Charles II regained the throne of his father he was beset by the Quakers, Baptists, Episcopalians, and others who complained of the intolerance of the Massachusetts authorities. It was represented to him that English subjects had been executed illegally; that the king's name did not appear in the writs; that Episcopalians were not allowed to appeal to the king's courts; that money had been coined illegally; that the Navigation Laws[1] had been broken, and that hundreds of other illegal acts had been committed. Charles had no love for Massachusetts, and gladly accepted the opportunity which was now given him to withdraw the charter. In spite of all protests this action was taken in 1684. In 1686 Sir Edmund Andros was appointed governor, and six years later a new charter was given by the English king, William III.

By this charter, Maine, Massachusetts, and Plymouth became one province. The religious qualification for voters gave way to a property qualification, except for Catholics, who were given no rights whatever.[2] The

[1] By these laws the commerce of the colonies must be carried on in vessels owned in England or the colonies, and the export of certain commodities was confined to England.

[2] Some of the worst penal laws on the pages of history were enacted during the first years of the reign of William and Mary. They may be seen in detail in Blackstone, *Commentaries*, Book IV, pp. 55–58.

king was granted power to appoint the governor, and the people could make only such laws as the king saw fit to approve.

SUMMARY

In 1620 the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth from the *Mayflower*.

In 1628 the Puritans reached Salem and later settled Boston.

In 1633 Roger Williams was driven from the Puritan colony and founded in 1636 the city of Providence.

In 1643 a confederacy of four colonies (Plymouth, Massachusetts bay, Connecticut, and New Haven) was formed for defense against the Indians and the Dutch.

In 1656 the Quaker persecution was begun.

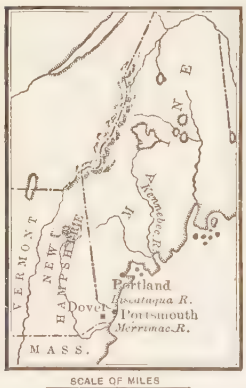
In 1676 the war with "King" Philip ended in his death and the overthrow of the Indian power forever.

In 1692 the Salem witchcraft delusion spread terror throughout the colony. In the same year a new charter consolidated the colonies of Maine, Massachusetts bay, and Plymouth into one.

New Hampshire, 1623

73. Grant to Gorges and Mason. — As early as 1603 Captain Martin Pring with two vessels explored the harbor now called Portsmouth, and sailed up the Piscataqua river. In 1622 Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason obtained from the Grand Council of Plymouth a grant of land between the Merrimac and the Kennebec, and extending from the Atlantic to the great river of Canada. This tract was called Laconia, "because of the great lakes therein."

74. Settlement of Dover and Portsmouth. — Settlements were planted at Dover and at Portsmouth, but little progress was made for many years, the chief occupations of the people being fishing, hunting, and trading with the Indians. In 1629 Mason and Gorges divided their territory. Mason received the portion between the Merrimac and Piscataqua rivers and called it New Hampshire, after Hampshire in England, where he had lived many years. Gorges took the territory between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec and called it Maine.[1] To his colony Mason sent over farming tools and cattle; but he died in 1635, and for many years the colonists were neglected. In 1635 Rev. John Wheelwright, who had been banished from Massachusetts for his sympathy with Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, settled Exeter. Among the immigrants into this colony was a large number of Irish, who founded Londonderry, 1719.



In 1641 New Hampshire was annexed to Massachusetts. They were separated and joined a number of times, until in 1679 New Hampshire became a royal province. Henceforth the king appointed the governor,

[1] In regard to the meaning of the name Maine, Bryant and Gay's History says Maine, like all the rest of the coast, was known as the "Maine," the mainland, and it is not unlikely that the word, so much used by the early fishers on the coast, may thus have been given to this part of it.

and all laws made by the colonists were subject to the approval of the king.

In the meantime Gorges had obtained in April, 1639, a charter from the king which conferred on him the title of "Lord Proprietor of the Province and County of Maine." This charter gave him almost unlimited power and established in the colony the Church of England. The province was divided in two counties, Agamenticus, or York, being the principal settlement of one, and Saco of the other. In 1632 Portland was founded. Gorges never visited America, and his province was neglected. In 1677 Massachusetts bought the claims from the heirs of Mason and Gorges for about six thousand dollars. By a new charter granted by William and Mary in 1691 Maine was united to Massachusetts and was controlled by that state until Maine was admitted into the Union in March, 1820.

SUMMARY

In 1603 Martin Pring explored the coast, and in 1622 Gorges and Mason were granted the territory between the Merrimac and the Kennebec. It was called Laconia. In 1629 it was divided and Mason called his share New Hampshire. Gorges called his territory Maine.

In 1641 New Hampshire and Massachusetts were united.

In 1679 New Hampshire became a royal province.

In 1677 Maine passed under the control of Massachusetts and in 1691 was united to it by a new charter.

In 1719 Londonderry was founded by the Irish.

Connecticut, 1634

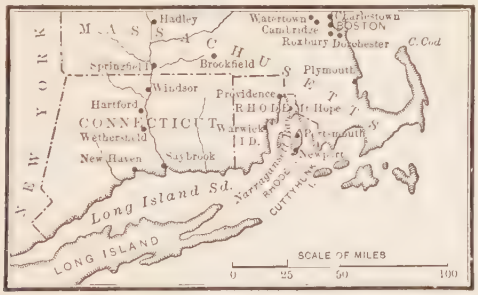
75. The Dutch at Hartford; Foundation of Saybrook. — While the Dutch had been extending their settlements to the north on the Hudson and to the south on the Delaware, they were also looking for territory to the eastward, and in 1633 they built a fort where Hartford now stands. In 1634 Wethersfield, the oldest town in Connecticut, was founded by emigrants from Watertown, near Boston. Two years afterwards John Winthrop, Jr., son of the governor, acting as agent of two Puritan noblemen who had obtained a grant of this section, established a fort at the mouth of the river to shut off the Dutch vessels. He called the fort Saybrook in honor of his patrons, Lord Say and Lord Brooke.

76. Emigration from Massachusetts. — The intensely narrow spirit of the Puritan leaders, the unrestrained power of the magistrates, and the lack of religious freedom in Massachusetts had become distasteful to many of the members. Accordingly, in 1636, a large body of colonists set out from Massachusetts. With their families and household goods they drove the cattle before them and reached the fair and fertile valley of the Connecticut, where they built up three towns, Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield.

77. The Fundamental Orders, 1639. — A general convention of the planters of the three towns of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield was held at Hartford, Jan. 14, 1639, and adopted a plan of government called "The Fundamental Orders."

The Fundamental Orders were modeled on the government of Massachusetts, except that the right of voting was not limited to church members but could be enjoyed by all approved freemen who would take the oath of allegiance. The governor, however, must be a member of one of the Congregational churches.

78. The New Haven Settlement. — In 1638 another colony was founded by a Puritan minister of the strictest type, John Davenport, assisted by a wealthy



London merchant, Theophilus Eaton. Their plan was to establish a colony to be governed on scriptural principles. The place where they settled was called Quinnipiac, and a year later New Haven. The laws of Moses were adopted at the outset for the colony. Only members of the Congregational church could be voters or magistrates. Trial by jury was not allowed, and it was decreed that "the Word of God shall be the only rule in ordering the affairs of government." [1]

[1] Under these laws there were twelve offenses punishable by death. In England in the middle of the eighteenth century there were over one hundred and sixty, and the number increased until the criminal law reform early in the last century.

Several towns were established near New Haven, and in 1643 New Haven, Milford, Guilford, and Stamford were united in one political community, called the New Haven colony. In 1662 this colony was absorbed by Connecticut[1] under a charter from Charles II.[2]

79. The Pequot War. — The colonists in the meantime had been exposed to a serious danger. In the valley of the river Thames dwelt a powerful tribe of Indians called the Pequots. They repeatedly attacked the settlements in the Connecticut valley, and the colonists at length determined to break their power. In 1637 a company of ninety men from Connecticut, under Captain John Mason, and twenty from Massachusetts, under Captain Underhill, with seventy friendly Mohicans[3] marched to the fort of the Pequots and surrounded it just before daybreak. The sleeping Indians awakened to find the fort in flames and completely at the mercy of the colonists. Of the four hundred Pequots within the inclosure only five escaped the flames and bullets. This defeat destroyed the power of

[1] Connecticut is an Indian word and is supposed to mean "the long river."

[2] Two of the judges who had condemned Charles I to death had found refuge in New Haven. When Charles II ascended the throne, he ordered them to be delivered up to his officers; but they were concealed by the people, and the search for them was fruitless. This incensed Charles and may have assisted the Connecticut colony in its successful attempt to absorb the New Haven colony.

[3] The Pequots tried to induce the Mohicans and Narragansetts to join them and almost succeeded. Roger Williams, however, returning good for evil, used his great influence with these tribes, and they refused to aid the Pequots in their war against the colonists.

the Pequots forever. The other tribes were so terrified by this crushing defeat that forty years elapsed before the Indians again raised the war cry against the colonists.

80. The Charter and Governor Andros. — The charter of Connecticut, which had been granted by Charles II, was taken away by his brother, James II, when he reached the throne. He appointed Sir Edmund Andros as governor of New England, and in October, 1687, he visited Hartford to obtain the charter. According to the tradition, the charter had been placed on the table, and while the matter was being discussed the lights were suddenly extinguished. When the candles were relighted the charter could not be found. It had been hidden in the hollow trunk of an oak tree, which has since been known as the "Charter Oak." Andros, however, overthrew the charter government. On his downfall the charter was again produced, and under it Connecticut was governed until the Revolution.

SUMMARY

In 1633 the Dutch built a fort at Hartford.

In 1635 emigrants from Massachusetts settled Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield.

In 1637 the Pequots went on the warpath. The colonists of Connecticut and Massachusetts attacked them, and the tribe was completely destroyed.

In 1638 New Haven was founded by English Puritans.

In 1639 the Connecticut Constitution, or Fundamental Orders, was drawn up at Hartford.

In 1687 Andros overthrew the charter government; but Connecticut later regained the charter, under which it was governed until the Revolution.

Maryland, 1634

81. The Position of the Catholics in England. — After Virginia became a royal province Charles I cut off a territory to the north and gave it to George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore. He was a rich nobleman who had been secretary of state under James I, but had resigned his position in 1625 on his conversion to the Catholic faith.[1] Knowing the fearful hardships of his fellow-religionists, he desired a refuge for the oppressed Catholics of England. At this time the Catholics under the British crown were suffering from a series of the most inhuman laws. According to these laws any priest discovered celebrating Mass would be fined two hundred marks[2] and imprisoned for one year, while any person discovered hearing Mass would receive the same imprisonment, with a fine of one

George Calvert, First Lord Baltimore

[1] The king continued him as a member of his privy council for life and regranted to him the estates which he had forfeited when he became a Catholic. He also raised him to the peerage under the title of Baron of Baltimore, a town in the southern part of Ireland.

[2] The old English mark was worth about three dollars and twenty-three cents.

hundred marks. Any person who refused to attend the services of the Church of England was forbidden to hold any office, to bear arms, or to come within ten miles of London. They were also forbidden to travel more than five miles without a special license or to come into court under a penalty of five hundred dollars. No Catholic could teach school under penalty of perpetual imprisonment, while any Catholic who sent his child abroad to be educated lost all his legal rights and real estate and was required to pay a fine of five hundred dollars. Any priest or bishop, born under the British crown, who returned to England from abroad and failed to renounce his religion within three days, was guilty of high treason, the punishment of which was death.

82. The Grant of Maryland.—To give a place of refuge to his persecuted fellow-Catholics, George Calvert tried to found a settlement in Newfoundland, but it was too cold. Later he attempted to settle in Virginia, but the colonists there drove him away on account of his Catholic faith. Still determined to carry out his plans, he returned to England and obtained from the king a grant of that part of Virginia lying between the Potomac and the fortieth degree of north latitude. At the request of the king, the territory was called Maryland in honor of his queen, Henrietta Maria.

83. The Maryland Charter. — Lord Baltimore was given the most extensive rights and privileges ever conferred by a sovereign of England. He was required to pay to the king each year, in token of homage, two Indian arrows and a fifth of all the gold and silver mined. He could coin money, grant titles of nobility, make war and peace, establish courts, appoint judges, and pardon criminals. He was required, however, to summon an assembly of the freemen, who alone could levy taxes; all enactments needed only his signature, and not that of the king, to have the binding effect of law.

84. Settlement at St. Marys. — Lord Baltimore died before the charter was signed, and his son, Cecil Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore, carried out his father's plans. With two vessels, in charge of Leonard Calvert, brother of the proprietor, the colonists, two hundred and twenty in number, with two Jesuits, Fathers White and Altham, entered Chesapeake Bay and sailed up the Potomac. At St. Clements island they landed and took possession. Father White consecrated the soil, and the first Mass in English America was celebrated March 25, 1634. A settlement which they named St. Marys was founded. Land was purchased from the Indians, and this gained their good will at the outset.

85. The Toleration Act. — Cecil Calvert had instructed his brother, on setting sail, "to be very careful to preserve unity and peace and to suffer no scandal nor offence to be given to any of the Protestants." That this instruction was followed to the letter is evident from the toleration and peace among the colonists. In 1649, however,

it was deemed best to put the principle of religious freedom in the form of law, the first enactment in the land that gave equal rights in religion to all Christians. The act read as follows: "And whereas the enforcing of the conscience in matters of religion hath frequently fallen out to be of dangerous consequence in those commonwealths where it hath been practised, and for the more

The Landing in Maryland

quiet and peaceable government of this province, and the better to preserve mutual love and amity among the inhabitants, no person within this province, professing to believe in Jesus Christ,[1] shall be in any ways troubled, molested or discountenanced for his or her religion or

[1] This provision excluded Jews from the suffrage. It was not until 1826 that they were allowed to vote and to hold office.

in the free exercise thereof." Under these humane laws the colony greatly flourished. Lord Baltimore invited the oppressed of all lands to join his colony, and in answer to his invitation, says Bancroft, "from France came Huguenots, from Germany, from Holland, from Sweden, from Finland, I believe from Piedmont, the children of misfortune sought protection under the tolerant sceptre of the Roman Catholic." [1]

86. Clayborne's Rebellion; Repeal of Toleration Act. — The inflowing of new settlers, many of them Puritans, threatened disaster to the colony. Many Virginia colonists, aided by the Puritans, invaded Maryland under William Clayborne. They overthrew the government and drove out Lord Baltimore.[2] He returned two years later, however, with a strong force and in August, 1646, regained possession of the government. In 1691 William and Mary, who had obtained the English throne, repealed the charter of Maryland, and it became a royal province. Lord Baltimore was stripped of his rights. The Act of Toleration was repealed, and the persecution of the Catholics at once began. They were forbidden to vote or to hold any office; they were denied the privilege of hearing Mass or holding any religious services. The

[1] Calvert deserves to be ranked among the most wise and benevolent lawgivers of all ages. He was the first in the history of the Christian world to seek for religious security and peace by the practice of justice and not by the exercise of power.—BANCROFT, *U. S.*, old ed., I, 244.

[2] Fathers White and Copley were arrested, loaded with chains, and sent to England for trial. The charge against them was that they had been ordained priests abroad and had come into England, a crime punishable with death. They were acquitted.

Church of England was established by law and all the inhabitants of the colony taxed for its support.[1]

The land taxes of the Catholics were doubled, and they were compelled to pay tithes amounting to forty pounds of tobacco for the support of the Church of England.

The capital was removed to its present site and called Annapolis, which became a city in 1708.

In 1714 Benedict Leonard Calvert renounced his Catholic faith, and to his son, Charles Calvert, a Protestant, the province was restored. In 1729 the city of Baltimore was founded. Maryland remained a proprietary colony until the Revolution.

SUMMARY

Lord Baltimore obtained a grant of land to found a colony in the New World for the oppressed Catholics of England. In 1634 the settlement of St. Marys was made.

In 1649 the Toleration Act, the first measure in America to give religious freedom to all Christians, was enacted. Later the Puritans obtained control. Lord Baltimore was deprived of his colony, and the Toleration Act was overthrown.

In 1691 Lord Baltimore, who had again obtained possession of his colony, was stripped of his rights under William and Mary, and persecution of the Catholics followed.

In 1714 the fourth Lord Baltimore renounced his Catholic faith and his son later regained the property.

In 1729 the city of Baltimore was founded.

[1] Maryland presented the picture of a province founded for the sake of religious opinion by the toil and treasure of Roman Catholics, in which of all who called themselves Christian, none, save Roman Catholics, were denied toleration. — HAWKS' *Eccl. Hist. U. S.*, II, 117.

Rhode Island, 1636

87. Roger Williams founds Providence. — We have already seen (p. 72) that Roger Williams was compelled to flee from the Massachusetts bay colony. In the midst of winter he plunged into the forest and sought protection in the hospitable tent of Massasoit, the Indian chief. Heading again towards Narragansett bay, he began to build a home on the Seekonk river. Scarcely had he done this when the governor of Plymouth[1] requested him to leave as he was in the territory of that colony. Departing from his cabin and his newly planted fields, Williams pushed on. Reaching a favorable site, he established a settlement which he called Providence.[2]

88. Settlement of Portsmouth and Newport. — In 1638 friends of Anne Hutchinson bought from the Narragansetts the island of Aquidneck, afterwards called Rhode Island. Dissensions, however, soon arose, and some of the colonists moved to the southern end of the island and founded a colony which was named Newport. The

[1] I received a letter from my ancient friend, Mr. Winslow, then governor of Plymouth, professing his own and others' love and respect to me yet lovingly advising me since I was fallen into the edge of their bounds . . . to remove but to the other side of the water . . . and we should be loving neighbors together. — *Letter of Roger Williams.*

[2] Coasting along the stream and round the headlands now known as Fox Point and India Point, up the harbor to the mouth of the Mooshausic River, he landed and upon the beautiful slope of the hill that ascends from the river he descried the spring around which he commenced the first plantations of Providence. GAMMELL. "Providence was so named because of God's merciful providence unto me in my distress," says Williams.

old settlement was called Portsmouth. These different colonies were united afterwards by a charter which Roger Williams secured in England,[1] and were called "The Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations."

89. Religious Toleration. — Roger Williams had suffered so much for his religious opinions that he established his new colony along broad religious lines. "The state," he declared, "was similar to a ship at sea on which there are many passengers. As on shipboard every passenger is allowed to use his own judgment as to attendance at the ship's prayers, so in the state no one should be compelled to attend religious services against his will; but should be obedient to the orders of the majority only in civil things." The laws of 1663, therefore, declared "that all men professing Christianity . . . who are obedient to the civil magistrate, though of different judgments in religious affairs, shall be admitted freemen and shall have liberty to choose and be chosen officers in the colony."

From 1719 (when a new arrangement of the laws was made) until the Revolution the Catholics, together with the Jews, were denied the rights of citizenship.[2]

[1] Roger Williams was compelled on his trip to England to sail from New York as Massachusetts refused to allow him to cross her soil to reach the port of Boston.

[2] As late as 1762 two Jews applied for citizenship, but the Superior Court rejected their application. The colony, however, in general was extremely liberal in religious matters. When the other New England colonies asked Providence to join with them in persecuting the Quakers, to its honor it refused.

SUMMARY

In 1636 Roger Williams, exiled from Massachusetts, founded the city of Providence. A short time afterward Portsmouth and Newport were founded by the friends of Anne Hutchinson. Roger Williams believed in freedom of worship, and the colony shares with Maryland the honor of establishing the principle of religious freedom.

New Sweden, or Delaware, 1638

90. The Swedes on the Delaware. — In 1623 the Dutch West India Company established a trading post on the banks of the Delaware, just below the present site of Philadelphia, and called it Fort Nassau. About the same time Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, formed a company to trade with America. In 1638 the Swedes, though they had no title to the land, erected Fort Christina — named in honor of the queen of Sweden — on the present site of Wilmington, Delaware. This territory was claimed by the Dutch,[1] and in 1655 Stuyvesant, governor of New Amsterdam, appeared with an army of seven hundred men before the fort, which at once surrendered, and New Sweden was at an end.

91. The English Conquest of Delaware. — In 1665 the English, who had taken New Netherland from the Dutch, captured Delaware. In 1682 Penn, who desired to give

[1] As a matter of fact this territory rightfully belonged to Lord Baltimore as it was part of Maryland.

his colony an outlet to the sea, bought Delaware — called also "The Three Lower Counties" — from the Duke of York. For many years there was friction between Pennsylvania and Delaware, but after 1703 Delaware was allowed a separate legislature, although it had the same governor as Pennsylvania until the Revolution.

SUMMARY

In 1623 the Dutch established a trading post on the Delaware, and in 1638 the Swedes made the first permanent settlement. It was captured from the Swedes by the Dutch. Later the English took possession and sold it to Penn, whereby it became a part of Pennsylvania. In 1703 Delaware became a separate province under the governor of Pennsylvania.

The Carolinas, 1663

92. Grant of Carolina. — South of Virginia St. Augustine was the only thriving settlement on the Atlantic coast. In 1663 Charles II made a grant to eight noblemen, among them being his devoted friends[1] George Monk, duke of Albemarle, and Edward Hyde, earl of Clarendon. This grant embraced the fertile tract of land stretching from Virginia to Florida[2] and extending westward to the Pacific. As this land had been called Carolina by Ribaut in honor of Charles IX of France a hundred years before, the new proprietors allowed the name to remain in honor of the king of England.

[1] To the Duke of Albemarle Charles was largely indebted for the throne of England, while Clarendon had befriended him in his exile.

[2] In this tract of land are included the present states of Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina.

93. Early Settlements; Foundation of Charleston. — The early settlements which had been made on the Chowan river were formed (1663) into a colony and named Albemarle.

In 1665 a wealthy planter, Sir John Yeamans, founded a colony on the Cape Fear river. It was called Clarendon, after one of the proprietors. In 1670 emigrants sent by the proprietors settled near the junction of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, but ten years later, in 1680, they moved to the tract of land between these rivers and established the city of Charleston.[1] Immigrants at once flocked to the new settlement from New York, Massachusetts, England, and even from France.

94. Locke's Fundamental Constitutions. — Among the proprietors was Lord Shaftesbury. His secretary was John Locke, afterwards famous as an English philosopher. Locke drew up a constitution for the colony which was called the "Fundamental Constitutions," or "Grand

[1] The proprietors wrote in regard to the new city, "You are to take notice and call it Charles-Town."

Model." This scheme of government hoped to transplant to America the aristocratic ideas of Europe. In order to avoid "erecting a numerous democracy" it provided for a carefully graded society from the higher nobility down to serfs attached to the soil. It decreed that no colonist could vote unless he owned fifty or more acres of land, and that no settler could leave the land without permission of the proprietor. It pretended to give religious freedom, while it denied that freedom to Catholics, and established the Church of England as that of the state.[1] The settlers, breathing the free air of the New World, laughed at the scheme, and the Grand Model was a dismal failure. Its only effect was to inspire contempt for all forms of government.

Some years later the colonists obtained the right to make their own laws, while the proprietors were to receive an annual rent of a half penny per acre.

As slaves were especially valuable for the cultivation of rice and indigo, the two leading commodities, the slave trade in southern Carolina became very active. The principal settlers were English, French, Irish, Scotch, and Germans. Under Baron de Graffenried, the Germans settled Newbern.

After Charleston was founded a separate governor generally ruled the northern and southern parts of Carolina. In 1729 the king purchased Carolina from the proprietors, and North and South Carolina became separate provinces.

[1] By the Act of 1704 to be a member of the assembly one must belong to the Church of England.

SUMMARY

In 1663 King Charles II granted to a body of noblemen the tract of land named Carolina. The constitution framed for the colony and called the "Grand Model" was written by Locke, the philosopher. The plan was a failure. Later North and South Carolina were separated and became royal colonies.

Pennsylvania, 1681

95. The Grant to Penn. — The foremost man among the Quakers in England was William Penn.[1] His father had been a distinguished admiral, to whom King Charles owed about eighty thousand dollars for services to his country. After his father's death Penn asked from the king the grant of a tract of land in America to balance the debt. The king gladly consented to free himself in this easy manner and granted, in 1681, a tract forty-eight thousand square miles in extent, fronting on the Delaware river and practically comprising the present state of Pennsylvania. To this region the name Pennsylvania (Penn's woods), after Admiral Penn, was given. Penn desired to establish a free commonwealth where the people might enjoy perfect freedom, at the same time rendering strict obedience to the civil authorities. Said Penn, "Liberty without obedience is confusion and obedience without liberty is slavery." The colonists had almost complete power of self-government. Each settler obtained one hundred acres of land for fifty dollars.

[1] While a student at Oxford Penn, being a Quaker, had refused to attend the religious services of the university. It is claimed by many that he was expelled in consequence.

The charter of privileges provided that no person believing in one God should be molested on account of religion, but only those who were Christians could take part in the government.[1]

It also provided that the Indians should be treated with justice and kindness, that every child should be taught a trade, and that criminals in jails should be employed in some useful occupation. He abolished the death penalty except for murder and treason.

In October, 1681, three shiploads of Quakers left England, and in 1682 Penn himself sailed with a hundred emigrants. He landed at Newcastle,[2] in the territory which is now Delaware, but which had been purchased by him from the Duke of York in 1681. He was cordially welcomed by the Swedes and Dutch who had settled there.

[1] The colony soon receded somewhat from the broad ground of religious freedom assumed by William Penn. From 1693 to 1775 no one could hold even the most petty office in the province without taking an oath denying the Real Presence and declaring Mass idolatrous. — Dr. Shea.

[2] When Penn reached Newcastle the government was transferred in the following manner: "The key to the fort was delivered to him: with this he locked himself in the fort and then let himself out in sign that the government was his. To show that the land with the trees on it belonged to him, a piece of sod with a twig in it was given to him. Then a porringer (or dish) filled with water from the river was given to him that he might be lord of the rivers as well as of the land." — Eggleston's *History of the United States and its People*, p. 59.

96. Philadelphia founded; Treaty with the Indians.— A city was marked out on the Schuylkill in 1682, to which the name Philadelphia (brotherly love) was given. The liberal laws regarding religion and Penn's high character attracted settlers in great numbers, among them being Swedes, Germans, and a very large number of Irish.

Soon after his arrival Penn, mindful of his Quaker beliefs, made a visit to the Indian wigwams to secure the good will of the red men. In 1682 a treaty of peace was made with the Delaware Indians. Standing under a wide-spreading elm, Penn and the Indians clasped hands and made solemn promises of friendship. For sixty years, while the Quakers had control of Pennsylvania, this peace remained unbroken and Penn was always loved and trusted by the red men. The Indian record of this treaty is a belt of wampum, which may be seen to this day in Philadelphia. So rapidly did the colony grow that three years after Penn's arrival it contained almost eight thousand inhabitants, and Philadelphia was the largest city in the colonies at the outbreak of the Revolution.

SUMMARY

The colony of Pennsylvania[1] was granted to William Penn, a Quaker, by Charles II, king of England. In 1681 the first colonists arrived, and Philadelphia was founded in 1682. A treaty was made with the Indians and faithfully kept while the Quakers were in power.

[1] The boundaries of Pennsylvania were for many years a subject of dispute. In 1763 Mason and Dixon, English mathematicians and surveyors, surveyed the southern boundary as far as the western limit of

Georgia, 1733

97. The Grant to Oglethorpe. — General James Oglethorpe, an English soldier, obtained from George II a grant of land between the Savannah and the Altamaha rivers, extending westerly from the sources of these rivers to the Pacific. Oglethorpe's leading motive was the establishment of a home for the poor debtors of England. Under the English law, for a debt of even one shilling a man could be imprisoned, and the jails were filled with the unfortunates who had not the means to pay their debts. They were subjected to the utmost cruelties, and many died before relief came.

Oglethorpe formed a company and made arrangements to pay these debts, to free the debtors, and to send them to America. He was assisted by hundreds of charitable people in England and by a grant of fifty thousand dollars from Parliament.

98. Settlement of Savannah, 1733. — In November, 1732, Oglethorpe sailed with one hundred and twenty persons to Charleston, where he was hospitably received. Cruising southward, he entered the Savannah river and laid the foundation of a town, which he named Savannah. A treaty was made with the Indians, the land purchased from them, and their good will secured. The laws of the colony provided that the trustees should

Maryland, marking it with stones one mile apart, every fifth stone having the Penn arms on the north side and the Baltimore arms on the south side. This was the origin of the Mason and Dixon's line (39° 43′), in later years the conventional boundary between the free and slave states.

rule it for twenty-one years, at the end of which time the king should decree what form of government it was to receive. The laws forbade negro slavery[1] and the importation of spirituous liquors. They permitted no one to own more than five hundred acres of land. Catholics were forbidden to settle there, and the Church of England was established, the people being taxed to support it.

99. War with Spain. — A second reason for the settlement of Georgia was the desire to check any northward movement of the Spaniards from Florida. In 1739 war was declared between England and Spain, and Oglethorpe led an expedition into Florida against the Spaniards. He besieged the town of St. Augustine with two thousand men. The Spaniards made a gallant defense, and Oglethorpe was compelled to return to Georgia. The Spaniards then took the offensive and, entering Georgia, attacked Oglethorpe at Frederica in May, 1744. They were repulsed and withdrew with heavy loss.

Under Oglethorpe's laws Georgia made slow progress. Discontent was apparent everywhere. The land laws were unsatisfactory, and at length, in 1752, the trustees surrendered the colony to the crown. It became thereupon a royal colony. Georgia was the last colony planted by England in America.

SUMMARY

Georgia was founded by Oglethorpe as a refuge for the debtors in English prisons. Catholics were forbidden to enter the colony. In 1733 Savannah, the first settlement, was founded.

[1] There were, however, many indentured white servants in the colony.

CHAPTER VI

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS

100. The Missionaries. — We have already seen how the French established a settlement on the St. Lawrence in 1608 and called it Quebec. It was a point of the greatest military value, on the highway to the Great Lakes and the valley of the Mississippi. Champlain, recognizing the importance of gaining the sympathy of the Indians, invited the Franciscans from France to establish missions among the tribes. One of these Franciscans penetrated as far as lake Huron,[1] where he established in 1615 a settlement at Thunder bay. In 1625 the Jesuits came to New France. They traversed the forest and established missions during the next fifty years at Mackinac, St. Ignace, Sault Ste. Marie,[2] Green Bay, Kaskaskia, and many other places. Father Ménard founded in 1661 a mission on the southern shore of lake Superior at St. Teresas bay. He lost his life in attempting to visit some Christian

[1] Jean Nicolet, a brave Norman, who came to New France in 1618, explored the region around lakes Huron and Michigan from 1634 to 1640.

[2] Thus did the religious zeal of the French bear the cross to the banks of the St. Mary and the confines of Lake Superior and look wistfully toward the homes of the Sioux in the valley of the Mississippi, five years before the New England Eliot had addressed a tribe of Indians that dwelt within six miles of Boston Harbor. — BANCROFT.

Hurons. Father Allouez[1] at once took up the work and established a mission at La Pointe, on one of the Apostle islands, near the present site of Ashland, Wisconsin. He was later joined by Father Dablon, superior of the Canadian missions, and by the great missionary whose name will forever adorn the pages of our history, — Father James Marquette.

101. Marquette and Jolliet[2] explore the Mississippi, 1673. — Frontenac, the governor of New France, desired to find a route to the South sea and chose Louis Jolliet, a Montreal trader, for the enterprise. In May, 1673, Father Marquette and Jolliet, with five companions, left St. Ignace mission in north Michigan to seek a great river to the west, of which they had heard many wonderful stories from the Indians. Dragging their light canoes up the rapids of the Fox river, they crossed lake Winnebago and soon discovered the Wisconsin river. Drifting down its beautiful waters, on June 17, 1673, a month after their departure, at the spot where Prairie du Chien now stands, they entered the great river called by the Indians Mississippi, but named by Father Marquette, Conception. "The first white men ventured forth upon its upper channel in two birch canoes. Five hardy voices raised a shout which was thrown back in an echo from the hills; five caps were whirled as high as paddles could raise them. But Marquette said: 'This

[1] In 1899 the Wisconsin Historical Society erected a tablet at Depere to the memory of Father Allouez, the founder of Wisconsin's first Indian missions.

[2] The explorer himself wrote his name Jolliet. The city named in his honor is spelled Joliet.

is such joy as we can not express.' The men in both canoes silenced themselves while he gave thanks for the discovery." [1] Sailing down the majestic river, amid its awful solitudes, they passed the Ohio, and on the way told the native tribes the truths of Christianity. They soon reached the spot where, according to tradition, De Soto died one hundred and thirty-one years before. Fearing to fall into the hands of the Spaniards, they now set out on the return journey. Ascending the Illinois river, Father Marquette ministered to the Kaskaskias. Thence pushing onward, they entered lake Michigan and reached Green Bay in September, having traveled no less than two thousand five hundred miles in their light canoes.

Father Marquette

Jolliet and a few companions returned to Montreal.[2] One year later Father Marquette set out again to establish a mission among the Kaskaskias. Scarcely had he reached their village when he fell ill, and, desiring to

[1] Mary Hartwell Catherwood's *Heroes of the Middle West.*

[2] Jolliet's canoe was upset in the Lachine rapids, and he barely escaped with his life. All his papers and maps describing his great journey were lost, but Father Marquette wrote a narrative which appeared in Paris in 1681.

pass his last hours among his faithful companions at St. Ignace, he started homeward. But the days of the saintly explorer and missionary were numbered. While his companions were trying to hurry him upon his journey he died on the shore of lake Michigan[1] on the 19th of May, 1675, thanking God that he was permitted to die in the wilderness, a member of the Jesuit Order.

102. Robert de la Salle. — In 1679 Robert de la Salle launched on the Niagara river a vessel of forty-five tons, named the *Griffin*, to explore the Great Lakes and the Mississippi. With three Franciscans he sailed through lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan and touched at St. Ignace. Stocking the *Griffin* with furs, he dispatched the vessel back to Fort Frontenac for provisions. La Salle[2] now sent one of his companions, Father Louis Hennepin, with two comrades to explore the upper Mississippi. In a few weeks they fell into the hands of the Sioux Indians, who led them captive to the site of the present city of

[1] His death occurred near the present site of Ludington. Later his body was transferred to the mission of St. Ignace, where a monument marks his last resting place. A statue of Father Marquette has been placed in the capitol at Washington by the state of Wisconsin.

[2] Second only to Champlain among the heroes of Canadian history stands Robert Cavelier de la Salle, a man of iron, if ever there was one — a man austere and cold in manner and endowed with such indomitable pluck and perseverance as have never been surpassed in this world. He did more than any other man to extend the Dominion of France in the new world. As Champlain had founded the colony of Quebec and opened the way to the Great Lakes, so La Salle completed the discovery of the Mississippi and added to the French possessions the vast province of Louisiana. — FISKE.

St. Paul.[1] Father Hennepin named the raging cascade here falls of St. Anthony in honor of the great saint of his order.[2]

La Salle with fourteen men in four canoes sailed southward and built a fort at the mouth of the St. Joseph river, which he called Fort Miami. Ascending the St. Joseph river and crossing to the Kankakee, he drifted down this stream and built a fort, which he called Crèvecœur (heartbreak). Here he waited for tidings from the *Griffin*, but they never came. He determined, therefore, to leave Crèvecœur in charge of his friend Henri de Tonty and to return to Fort Frontenac, a thousand miles away. In the midst of winter, with only five companions he turned backward on his fearful journey. He reached the fort in May, gathered new supplies, and returned with twenty-five companions. He found Fort Crèvecœur in ruins and no trace of Tonty and his companions. After searching in vain for his friend he sailed down the river to the mouth of the Illinois, and before him spread the great Mississippi.

He left a letter tied to a tree and hoped that Tonty might find it. Then returning to Fort Miami, he was compelled to spend the winter there. During this time he made friends among the Indian tribes. In May he returned to St. Ignace, where, to his inexpressible delight, he met his friend Tonty.

[1] Father Galtier erected (1841) a little chapel here dedicated to St. Paul. It was from this chapel that the city of St. Paul received its name.

[2] St. Anthony of Padua. Father Hennepin and his companions were soon rescued by the hunter Du Lhut.

103. Further Explorations of La Salle; his Death; New Orleans founded. — La Salle was not yet satisfied. With fifty-four companions he again sailed down the Illinois. Entering the Mississippi, he passed the mouths of the Missouri and the Red river and in April, 1682,

reached the mouth of the Mississippi. Here he erected a cross and a column to which he fastened a metal plate, bearing the arms of France and the date. Claiming all the land drained by the river for the king of France, he named this vast region Louisiana in honor of his sovereign, Louis XIV.

He soon sailed for France to tell the king of the wonderful country he had explored and the necessity of colonizing it. The king agreed with him, and La Salle returned with an expedition of four ships. In passing he missed the mouths of the Mississippi and landed at Matagorda bay in Texas, four hundred miles west of that river. He searched in vain for the Mississippi and was murdered by some of his followers March 18, 1687. All the colony perished later at the hands of the Indians.

In 1699 Iberville, who had obtained permission from the French king to found a city at the mouth of the Mississippi, entered the river and explored its course for several days. He next built a fort at Biloxi. In 1700 Mobile was founded. In 1718 Bienville, a brother of Iberville, founded the city of New Orleans, thus controlling the great river of the continent. In the meantime the French had been active in the North. A great hunter and ranger, Du Lhut, founded a post which has since been named Duluth in his honor. In 1701 Cadillac built a fort on the strait which connects lakes Erie and Huron and called it Detroit, and a year later Vincennes was founded. It was the establishment of military posts throughout this vast territory that eventually brought on a life struggle between the English and the French.

CHAPTER VII

THE WARS OF THE ENGLISH AND THE FRENCH IN AMERICA

104. King William's War,[1] **1689–1697.** — It will be remembered that in the charters the grants of most of the colonies stretched from sea to sea. The French had now taken possession of the Mississippi valley, a territory which was claimed by the English. There could be only one result from disputes about this territory, — war, which was declared in 1689. Another cause for war was the fact that James II, who had fled from England, had taken refuge in France, and the king of France was striving to replace him on the throne. Count Frontenac was sent to America to look after the French interests. He at once planned to capture New York. The Iroquois were bitter foes of the French, while the Algonquins were their stanch friends. On his arrival Frontenac learned that the Iroquois had invaded Canada, besieged Montreal, and had burned captives at the stake with fiendish cruelty. It was now the turn of the French and their Indian allies. In February, 1690, they swept southward, surprised and captured Schenectady, burned the town, and massacred the inhabitants. Now followed a period of the most horrible

[1] So called from William III, who at that time sat on the throne of England.

warfare. Salmon Falls, New Hampshire; York and Fort Loyal (now Portland, Maine); Groton and Haverhill, Massachusetts, were attacked and many of the inhab-

North America at Beginning of French Wars

itants massacred. In 1690 New England organized an expedition of two thousand militia under Sir William Phips which captured Port Royal, Acadia. The war

closed in 1697. Neither side had gained or lost any valuable territory.

105. The War of the Spanish Succession,[1] 1702–1713. — King William died in 1702, and Anne became queen of England. War was renewed between France and England. The Indians spread death and destruction on all sides, not only on the frontiers but even in the interior of the colonies. They attacked Deerfield in 1704 and Haverhill in 1708, putting to death the inhabitants. Two years later an expedition from Boston captured Port Royal (which had been returned to the French at the close of King William's War) and changed its name to Annapolis in honor of the queen.

A force was led in 1711 against Quebec. Many of the ships were wrecked in the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the expedition returned an utter failure. The war ended in 1713. The French lost Acadia, which the English named Nova Scotia. To the English were also ceded Newfoundland and the Hudson bay territory. The French also agreed that the Iroquois should be considered subjects of Great Britain.[2]

106. War of the Austrian Succession,[3] 1744–1748. — Peace lasted for thirty years, when war was again declared. George II was now king of England. The principal point of attack was Louisburg, a strong

[1] This war was so called in Europe because the European nations objected to a French prince's obtaining the throne of Spain. It is also called Queen Anne's War.

[2] This provision gave England an opportunity later to claim the entire country over which the Iroquois roamed as English territory.

[3] This war is also called King George's War.

fortress on the southeast coast of Cape Breton island. A union of forces from New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts to the number of four thousand sailed under William Pepperell against this massive granite fortification. After a siege of six weeks it was captured in June, 1745. Three years later, by the treaty of peace, Louisburg was returned to the French[1] to the great disappointment of the colonies.

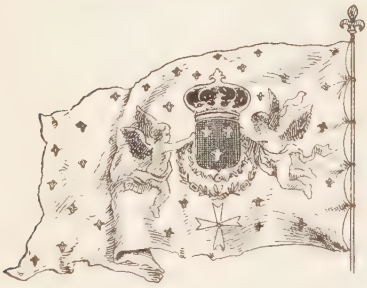
107. The Seven Years' War,[2] 1754–1763. — We now approach the last great conflict between the French and English in the New World.

The French had command of the great water ways, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. A chain of forts had been established along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, on the Wabash and Illinois rivers, and down the Mississippi to the mouth of that mighty stream, where the white flag of France waved over the city of New Orleans. That line of forts — Detroit, St. Joseph,

[1] Louisburg was exchanged for Madras in India, which had fallen into the hands of the French. England paid back to the colonies the amount they had spent in the expedition.

[2] This war is frequently called the French and Indian War.

Vincennes, Cahokia, Kaskaskia, Chartres, New Orleans—gave the French control of the vast tract called Louisiana. They were now taking possession, as we shall see, of the Ohio valley in the name of Louis XV, and were building forts along the headwaters of the Ohio, beside the Allegheny river, on lake Erie, and at Niagara. The French had the sympathy and support of the entire Algonquin family, but the Iroquois were held for the English by William Johnson.[1] The English-speaking colonists were, for the most part, along the Atlantic seaboard. They had now begun to turn their eyes across the Alleghenies, but the French line of settlements and forts seemed to present an unbroken front, preventing their westward progress.



The White Flag of France

108. The Ohio Company; George Washington. — In 1750 a number of Virginians organized the Ohio Company for the purpose of opening up lands along the Ohio. They obtained from the king a grant of five hundred thousand acres of land, mainly along the Monongahela and Kanawha rivers, and sent surveyors to mark out

[1] William Johnson was of Irish birth and had settled near Schenectady to manage his estates. His dealings with the Indians had so endeared him to them that the Mohawks had adopted him into their tribe with the rank of sachem.

the land. The French took alarm at this invasion of their territory and immediately erected a fort at Presque Isle (now Erie, Pennsylvania) on lake Erie. Directly south they built a second fort called Le Bœuf,[1] and a third named Venango, on the Allegheny. Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia sent a young man, only twenty-one years of age, an adjutant general in the Virginia militia, to order them to cease building these forts on English territory. This young man was George Washington, whose name appears here for the first time in the pages of history.

109. The French at Fort Duquesne. — The French promptly and firmly declined to yield to Dinwiddie's order. The latter, seeing there was no time to be wasted or the Ohio valley would be lost, sent a force under a trader, William Trent, to build a fort at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. This point Washington had marked as of great military value. The French came up as the English were at work and compelled them to leave. Finishing the fort themselves, they called it Fort Duquesne[2] in honor of the governor of Canada. Washington with seventy-five men hastened to the assistance of Trent, but was informed of Trent's surrender before he had traveled far. He decided to push on, however, and after journeying some days, built a stockade, which he called Fort Necessity. Hearing of the approach of a body of French and Indians, he sallied out and captured them; but the main body

[1] Le Bœuf (Leh-bŭf').
[2] Duquesne (Du-kane').

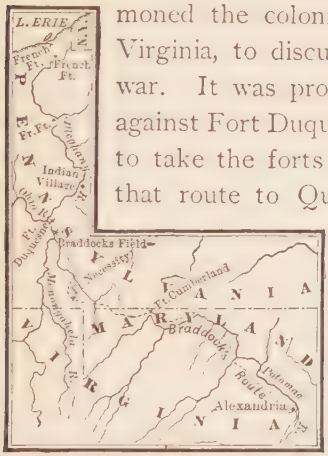
of the French now appeared, and Washington, besieged in Fort Necessity, was compelled to surrender, July 4, 1754.

110. The Albany Convention, 1754. — Virginia now voted a gift of land to every man who would go to the front, and fifty thousand dollars were appropriated for military operations on the Ohio. At a meeting in

Albany, which had been called by the English government to make a treaty with the Iroquois, Benjamin Franklin proposed a "plan of union" for the colonies against the French.[1] While the scheme did not succeed, it was of great importance as it gave the colonies a groundwork for future union. At the same time the convention made the colonists better acquainted with each other and paved the way for the later union against England.

[1] In the *Pennsylvania Gazette* of this time appeared a device representing a snake cut into pieces. Each piece represented a colony and beneath were the words "Unite or Die." Its author was Franklin.

111. Plan of Campaign; Braddock's Defeat. — The English king now sent over two regiments of regulars under General Braddock. On his arrival Braddock summoned the colonial governors to Alexandria, Virginia, to discuss plans for carrying on the war. It was proposed to send an expedition against Fort Duquesne; a second force planned to take the forts on lake Champlain, opening that route to Quebec and Montreal, while a third army was to sail up the Hudson, to pass along the Mohawk valley, and, skirting the shores of lake Ontario, to attack the forts near the Niagara river.



Braddock commanded in person the expedition against Fort Duquesne. Ignorant though he was of Indian warfare, he scorned advice and, looking with contempt on the skill of the Indians in war, pushed his way through the woods toward Fort Duquesne. When within eight miles of the fort he found his troops surrounded by the enemy, who were hidden in the bushes, while from every side poured in the bullets of the French and Indians. His forces were cut to pieces, he himself was mortally wounded, and Washington with difficulty saved the retreating troops by his masterly skill.

112. The Expulsion of the Acadians. — The province called Acadia — the territory now included in the peninsula of Nova Scotia — had been under the rule of

France for a century, but in 1713 it was transferred to the English. For many years there were endless disputes about the territory, and in 1755 an expedition was directed against the French forces that held military posts there. The inhabitants were nearly all Catholics, who had prosperous farms and happy homes. The English, claiming that the Acadians were constantly plotting against them and in favor of France, resolved to expel them from the country. The cruel measure[1] was successfully carried out, no less than six thousand men, women, and children being placed on vessels and dropped along the coast among colonists who, while they did not welcome them, treated them kindly. Many of the exiles reached Louisiana. The torch was applied to the homes of the unfortunate people, and the fair fields of Acadia were for years a waste.

113. Battle of Lake George; Fall of Fort William Henry. — The bitter struggle had been in progress two years before the formal declaration of war between England and France. In September, 1755, Dieskau, the French commander, marched with fourteen hundred troops against Fort Edward, near the head of navigation

[1] All the men, young and old, were ordered to meet at the village church of Grand Pré on the afternoon of Friday, Sept. 5, 1755, to hear the intentions of the king in regard to them. The unsuspecting natives gathered and heard the fearful judgment. All their possessions except money and household goods were forfeited, and they were prisoners of the king. Before they could realize their position the church was surrounded by troops. Longfellow has told the pitiful story of their sufferings in his poem *Evangeline*.

on the Hudson. The English, marching to meet him, fell into an ambush and suffered terrible losses. They fell back to their camp at lake George, where, defended by a barricade of trees and wagons, they successfully resisted the assault of the enemy. After a fight of five hours the French retreated. Dieskau was severely wounded and fell a prisoner into the hands of the English.

In the following year Montcalm attacked the three forts at Oswego that commanded the entrance to lake Ontario. They fell easily into his hands and were demolished. The French were now masters of the Great Lakes. In August, 1757, Montcalm turned his attention to Fort William Henry at the head of lake George. With seventy-six hundred men, including two thousand Indians, he besieged this important point. For six days his batteries rained shot and shell on the fort till it surrendered. It was destroyed, and the French were now masters of lake George and lake Champlain.[1]

114. William Pitt; French Reverses. — Affairs became brighter for England when William Pitt, in 1757, became the ruling power there and threw all his energy toward carrying on the war. He planned three expeditions, the first against Louisburg, the second against Fort Duquesne, and the third against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. In July, 1758, Louisburg was attacked

[1] As the English troops were leaving the fort they were attacked by the Indians and sixty or seventy massacred despite Montcalm's attempts to restrain his savage allies.

by fourteen thousand men and surrendered with fifty-six hundred prisoners of war.[1]

In November Fort Duquesne was captured and called Pittsburg in honor of the English statesman. On July 8 Montcalm, in his defenses at Ticonderoga, with only four thousand soldiers, was attacked by Abercrombie, with sixteen thousand men, the largest army of white soldiers that had ever been gathered on the continent. The English were repulsed with fearful slaughter, losing almost two thousand men.

Montcalm

But a succession of defeats now weakened the French. Fort Frontenac on lake Ontario fell, and Niagara was captured by Sir William Johnson.

115. The Plains of Abraham. — On July 26 the French abandoned Crown Point, and a week later Ticonderoga. General Wolfe, who had distinguished himself before Louisburg, led an expedition against Quebec, the strongest fortress in America. Montcalm with a strong army defended the citadel, which was

[1] In 1760 Great Britain ordered the total destruction of the fortifications, and nothing remains of Louisburg except the ruins and the huts of a few fishermen.

built on a rocky bluff, carefully guarded on every side except one, where a steep ravine seemed to defy any approach. After four months' attempt to draw Montcalm into a fight, Wolfe resorted to stratagem. One dark night, Sept. 12, 1759, he led his forces up the ravine to the Plains of Abraham behind the city.[1] When day broke the French were amazed to see the glittering ranks of the English, five thousand strong, drawn up in battle array. A fierce battle ensued in which the French were defeated, and both Montcalm[2] and Wolfe were mortally wounded. Quebec passed into the hands of the English, Sept. 17, 1759, and the power of France in America was doomed.[3]

"With the triumph of Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham began the history of the United States," says Greene.

[1] While in his boat on his way to the attack Wolfe is said to have repeated the verse from Gray's *Elegy:*

> The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
> And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
> Await alike the inevitable hour,
> The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

When he had finished he said, "I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec to-morrow."

[2] Montcalm died on the day after his defeat. He was buried in the chapel of the Ursuline convent. When told that his wound was mortal he said, "I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

[3] On the monument to Wolfe and Montcalm in Quebec are these words:

Valor gave a united death, History a united fame, Posterity a united monument.

As a result of this victory, Parkman says: "England blazed with bonfires. In one spot alone all was dark and silent; for here a widowed mother mourned for a loving and devoted son, and the people forbore to profane her grief with the clamor of their rejoicings."

116. The Treaty of Paris. — In the treaty of peace made in Paris in 1763 France gave to England the whole of Canada, except two small islands, with a share in the fisheries, all her possessions east of the Mississippi except New Orleans, and an adjacent strip of territory. She gave all the territory west of the Mississippi with New Orleans to Spain; Spain gave up Florida to England in exchange for Havana, which the English had captured during the war.

North America at Close of French Wars, 1763

117. Conspiracy of Pontiac. — The Indians of the West had been for some time discontented. A conspiracy was formed by an Ottawa chief, Pontiac, a man of great ability and daring, who had brought eighteen Indian nations under his rule. His plan was to attack all the English forts on the same day, May 7, 1763. Although the conspiracy failed, the Indians captured practically all the forts[1] in the West with the exception of Detroit, Niagara, and Fort Pitt.

[1] The forts captured by Pontiac were Fort Sandusky, Fort St. Joseph at the head of lake Michigan, Michilimacinac, Ouatonon on the Wabash, Miami on the Maumee, Presque Isle on the site of the city of Erie, Venango, and Le Bœuf, while Fort Pitt was besieged. At Michilimacinac the Indians played a ball game, driving the ball nearer and nearer the fort, whose gates were wide open while the soldiers looked

118. The Quebec Act. — In 1774 Parliament established a system of government for Canada. The entire territory had been earlier divided into four provinces, one of which was Quebec. The new act extended the Quebec province, which in consequence reached to the Ohio and Mississippi rivers and northward to Hudson bay. One of its purposes was to render justice and protection to the large number of Catholics now under the English flag, who would suffer greatly if subjected to the penal laws of England against the Catholics. This act aroused at once great opposition among the colonists along the Atlantic seaboard. The Canadians remembered this bitter antagonism, and when later the colonists sought their aid against England, they refused to betray the nation that had treated them so justly.

RESULTS OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

1. Through it France lost practically all her possessions in the New World.

2. It taught the colonists to unite for a common purpose.

3. It proved that the provincial troops were as fearless and capable as the British regulars.

4. It trained a body of colonial officers in the art of war, which served them in good stead at the outbreak of the Revolution.

5. It left only England to be conquered in the war for independence.

6. It created an enormous debt, which caused the levying of new taxes, the direct cause of the Revolution.

at the game. Suddenly the ball was driven inside the wall, and the Indians, rushing in as if to recover it, raised the war whoop and, drawing tomahawks from under their blankets, butchered the English with horrible cruelties.

CHAPTER VIII

LIFE IN THE COLONIES IN 1763

119. The Colonists and England. — The year 1763 marks a turning point in American history. The power of France in the New World was broken forever; England was mistress of the vast territory stretching from the Atlantic ocean to the Mississippi river. The colonists now numbered about one million six hundred thousand, of whom four hundred thousand were negro slaves. They feared no longer the attacks from the French and Indians and, awake to their own strength, began to demand from England the rights which they asserted belonged to them as subjects of the British crown. These demands led to revolution. Before entering on this great struggle, let us glance at the condition of the colonies at the signing of the peace treaty with France in 1763.

120. Civil Government. — There were three forms of government in the colonies, — charter, proprietary, and royal.

1. Charter colonies: Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts.

The charter was a contract between the king and the colony, which specified the exact rights and powers which each was to enjoy. It could not be changed without the consent of both parties.

2. Proprietary colonies: Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland.

These colonies were governed by a proprietor, to whom the king had granted the land. This proprietor had power to dispose of the land to settlers and to establish a government for his territory.

3. Royal colonies: New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia.

In these colonies the governor was appointed directly by the crown and was its personal representative. Royal colonies were therefore under the king's direct rule and were protected by no written charter. Each colony had a legislative body, elected by the people;[1] the right to vote was allowed, however, only to those who had a fixed yearly income or owned land and were members of a Protestant church.

So marked is the diversity of the physical features of the colonies as well as their interests, manners, customs, and occupations that they may be divided into three groups, — the New England, the Middle, and the Southern.

121. The New England Colonies. — These comprise Massachusetts,[2] New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, with a population of about six hundred thousand. There were slaves, but the number was

[1] If the acts of the colonial legislatures were vetoed by the governors, they failed to become laws. It was necessary that all acts passed by colonial legislatures except those of Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Maryland should be signed by the king of England to become laws.

[2] Maine was at this time a part of Massachusetts, and New Hampshire claimed a large part of Vermont.

never large, as they were not profitable. Farming was the chief industry; but the rugged nature of the land induced many colonists, especially in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, to become traders and mechanics. The forests were valuable in all kinds of timber, and ship-building was consequently one of the greatest industries. The New England colonies carried on a profitable shipping trade with the West Indies,[1] where they obtained sugar, molasses, cotton, logwood, and slaves, and in return exported rum, salt fish, oysters, and flour.

The cod and whale fisheries were a source of great wealth, as the waters abounded in fish, and fishing towns grew up here and there along the coast. Despite the valuable water power throughout the colonies, only a small amount of manufacturing was carried on. Certain kinds of manufacturing were forbidden by England.[2] On a small scale, however, were carried on tanning, milling, linen weaving, hat and paper manufacturing, and the distillation of rum from the molasses of the West Indies. The English government wanted to restrict this trade to the English West Indies; but it was unable to do so, and smuggling was practiced to an enormous extent.

The political unit in New England was the "town," a subdivision of the colony, not too large to prevent the

[1] Sixteen hundred vessels were employed at one time in the foreign and coast trade of Boston.

[2] It was the policy of England to prevent all manufacturing that the English manufacturers might have absolute control. The colonists were in some cases even forbidden to send goods from one colony to another.

farmers living in it from attending the same church. The "town" was the reproduction of the English parish with some variations. In these towns the freemen voted in a "town meeting" on all questions of local government, elected executive officers, called selectmen, and the representatives of the town to the colonial legislature.

New England Colonist

The life of the people was guided by rather rigid rules. Absence from church on the Sabbath[1] was visited with prompt punishment, and in general all social pleasures were frowned on. Certain grades of society were recognized with distinctions of dress for each grade.[2] Seats in church were allotted according to wealth and education.[3]

[1] The Sabbath began at six o'clock in the evening on Saturday and lasted until sunset on Sunday. All work of every description was suspended, while amusements and sports, rare enough on week days, were absolutely prohibited. There was no travelling, no movement in the streets, nothing but religious exercises at home and in church. No traveller could be entertained, and if any one was absent from church for more than one Sunday, he was obliged to offer sufficient defence or be fined, set in the stocks or in a wooden cage, or whipped. There was no trading, no walking to the water's edge, or even in summer on the common. The streets were deserted except between services, for every one was either at his own home or at the church. — LODGE'S *A Short History of the English Colonies in America*, p. 429.

[2] The order of precedence was as follows: gentlemen, yeomen, merchants, mechanics, indentured servants, and negro slaves.

[3] For more than a hundred years after its establishment the students in Harvard College were arranged according to their rank instead of alphabetically.

The law was the common law of England amended by legislation to suit the new conditions. In making such amendments the Levitical law of the Old Testament was sometimes followed. In criminal cases branding on the cheek or forehead was resorted to, or a letter to indicate the crime was fastened on the dress or suit of the culprit. The houses were generally built of large logs or boards. They had large open fireplaces at which the cooking was done. Every house had a spinning wheel, and coarse linen and homespun were in general use, for the dress of the New England colonists was severely simple.

Education was fostered by the New England colonists from the foundation of the colony. Grammar schools existed in some of the towns, and colleges were established. The Massachusetts colony gave four hundred pounds to found Harvard College in 1636. In 1701 Yale College was founded.

122. The Middle Colonies. — The population of the middle colonies amounted to about four hundred thousand and was composed of Dutch, Germans, Irish, English, French, and Swedes.

The chief industries in the middle colonies were agriculture and commerce. Wheat, which was raised in large quantities, was ground in the windmills that dotted the hillsides everywhere. New York maintained a thriving commerce with foreign ports, especially with England, Spain, and the West Indies, foreshadowing the great commerce of that port at this day.

There were few cities. Philadelphia, the largest city in all the colonies, had only twenty thousand inhabitants.

In their social life the Dutch in New York maintained, through the patroon system, an aristocracy. On their vast estates these patroons followed the lavish entertainment and expenditures of the nobility of Europe.

Pennsylvania and New Jersey were entirely free from aristocratic ideas, the Quakers spending their simple frugal life in tilling their farms and spreading plenty around them.

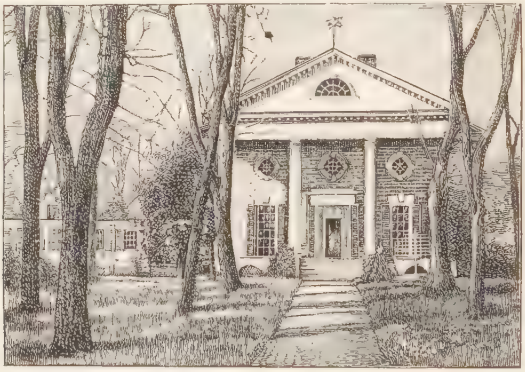
There was little provision in the middle colonies for elementary education. For the higher education were established Princeton in 1746, King's College (the present Columbia University) in 1754, and the University of Pennsylvania, founded by Benjamin Franklin, in 1755.

Dutch Windmill

123. The Southern Colonies. — In the southern colonies agriculture was the universal occupation. In Virginia immense plantations stretched along the great rivers. Tobacco was raised everywhere in the colony and became the basis of all mercantile life. In South Carolina and Georgia rice and indigo were the leading productions. Slavery was the basis of the industrial life of these colonies and slave labor was used almost exclusively, although "indentured servants were to be found throughout these colonies." [1]

[1] Indentured servants were white servants who were bound to labor for a specified number of years to pay for their passage to America.

The ever-increasing size of the plantations removed the planters farther and farther from one another, and in consequence there were few towns. The plantation was a village in itself. Vessels sailing up the rivers touched at its wharf; it had its own blacksmiths, carpenters, and coopers; its mills for grinding corn and its warehouses for tobacco. The planter's home, with its



Southern Colonial Mansion

scores of servants, was the abode of wealth and hospitality. Here and there were grouped the cabins of the slaves.

In these colonies the estate passed to the eldest son on the death of the owner, as was the law in England,

At the end of their term they were free to go where they wished. They generally became farmers.

Another class of servants were criminals. By an act of Parliament a criminal condemned to death could have his sentence commuted if he bound himself for service for fourteen years in America. If he returned within that time, he would be executed. If convicted of lesser offenses, criminals were allowed to bind themselves for shorter periods.

thus preventing the division of estates and aiding to build up a landed aristocracy.

There were in consequence so few towns that the Virginia legislature ordered towns to be built, but the law had little effect. In all the colonies the Church of England — that is, the established state Protestant church of Great Britain — was established by law, and fines and imprisonment were sometimes imposed for refusal to support this church. The English governors were indifferent to the establishment of schools or the spread of education in the South. Printing was forbidden by law in Virginia in the seventeenth century. Governor Berkeley said in 1670, "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing presses in Virginia and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years." Private teachers were employed by the planters to instruct their children. The only college in the South, William and Mary, was established in 1693. The sons of the planters were generally sent abroad to be educated. For the poorer classes there were no schools.

CHAPTER IX

THE PERIOD OF THE REVOLUTION

124. The Navigation Acts. — The expenses of the wars between the French and the English in America were so great that the debt of England had been doubled. British statesmen, therefore, decided to compel the colonists to pay part of the expenses of colonial administration. They offered as an excuse that the war had been waged to drive out the French from the valley of the Ohio for the benefit of the colonists, and therefore the colonists should bear part of the burden of defense. At the same time England looked on the colonies, now rapidly increasing in wealth, as a good field for the raising of revenues for the British crown. In pursuance of a policy of protection to English commerce and industry the Navigation Acts had been enacted. According to these acts colonial trade could be carried on only in ships owned in England or in the colonies; certain exports — tobacco, sugar, furs, copper, and indigo — could be sent only to English ports; no goods might be carried from a port in Europe to America until they had been landed at some port in England: colonists were forbidden to manufacture the wool[1] raised in America, it being

[1] It was forbidden to export any machinery or patterns of machinery from England. It was hoped that this law would prevent the growth of manufactures in America.

exported to England, where it was woven into cloth and returned to the colony. It was forbidden to manufacture iron except in its crude forms in the colonies, and grain exported to England was heavily taxed to aid the British farmer. These laws were seldom enforced. In 1761 the British decided to strictly enforce them and thereby obtain greater revenue. The British customs officers therefore asked the Superior Court of Massachusetts for permission to use writs of assistance.[1]

The application for these writs aroused the most intense excitement. James Otis was the advocate general, and it was his duty as an officer of the crown to plead in favor of them. Rather than do so he resigned and for five years opposed the granting of them. "Every one with this writ may be a tyrant," he thundered.[2] In spite of the eloquence of Otis the writs were granted. The colonists knew no way of resisting them as they were perfectly legal; but the spirit of revolution was now beginning to show itself, and it broke out in full vigor

[1] A writ of assistance was a general search warrant to enter any house and search for smuggled goods. Its great dangers lay in the fact that the officer could search any house at any time, entering by force, if necessary, without specifying previously what goods he was searching for. It was therefore a dangerous instrument in the hands of a tyrannical power. Another vital point at issue between the crown and the colonists was the appointment of judges. The crown maintained that judges should hold office during the king's pleasure, thus making them merely creatures of the throne. The colonists bitterly opposed this measure.

[2] "Then and there," says John Adams, "was the first scene of the first act of opposition to the arbitrary claims of Great Britain. Then and there American Independence was born."

when the ministry of England decided to lay a direct tax on the colonies.

125. The Stamp Act, 1765.—This direct tax was called the "Stamp Act." It provided that a stamp should be placed on every sheet of legal paper, on every license, on every written contract, on advertisements, and on the paper used for newspapers.[1] One of the provisions of the law was that all offenses against the Stamp Act could be tried in any part of the colonies, instead of at the scene of the offense, and in the vice admiralty court without a jury. This was a direct blow at the right of trial by jury.[2]

This tax was passed in the British Parliament without any noteworthy opposition; but when the intense feeling of the colonies was known, their part was taken by several prominent statesmen, including Pitt, Barré, and Edmund Burke.[3]

The passage of the stamp tax aroused the utmost indignation. It was something undreamed of in American history. As each colony elected its own assembly or legislature, this assembly was the only power that could levy taxes on the people. Virginia was the first colony to raise its voice in protest. A

[1] It was estimated that the stamp tax would provide about five hundred thousand dollars a year in revenue.

[2] The court was to consist of a single judge without a jury, and, as if to render justice out of the question, the salary of the judge should be paid by those whom he condemned.

[3] In his speech Pitt said: "The gentleman tells us that America is obstinate, America is almost in open rebellion. I rejoice that America has resisted."

young lawyer, Patrick Henry,[1] presented the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the taxation of the people by themselves or by persons chosen by themselves to represent them who can only know what taxes the people are able to bear . . . is the distinguishing characteristic of British Freedom.

Resolved, therefore, That the general assembly of this colony has the only and sole exclusive right and power to levy taxes upon the inhabitants of this colony.

126. The Stamp Act Congress, 1765. — The delegates from nine of the colonies met in New York and wrote a declaration of rights and grievances which were sent to the king and to both of the houses of Parliament in England. The declaration said, among other things, that only the representative colonial assemblies could impose taxation and that the right of trial by jury could not be lawfully denied. The struggle had now begun, and the war cry was, "Taxation without representation is tyranny." On the 1st of November, the day on which the act was to go into effect, the colonists showed their violent opposition by mobbing and burning in effigy the officers and destroying the stamp offices.

Bells were tolled, flags were hung at half-mast, and no one was found in the colonies that dared to sell a piece of stamped paper. The colonists agreed not to buy, sell, or use the articles that had been stamped and to

[1] In Wirt's *Life of Patrick Henry* we read: "It was in the midst of this magnificent debate that he exclaimed in a voice of thunder, 'Caesar had his Brutus, Charles I his Cromwell, and George the Third (Treason! cried the speaker. Treason! Treason! echoed from every part of the house) — may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.'"

cease using English goods. To the merchants of London the loss of their colonial trade meant dire disaster, and they joined with the colonists for the repeal of the law. So great was their influence that the law was repealed March 18, 1766, "an event," says Burke, "that caused more universal joy throughout the British Dominion than perhaps any other that can be remembered."

127. The Townshend Acts, 1767. — Although the stamp tax was repealed, Parliament passed the Declaratory Act, asserting its *right* in all cases to tax America. The next year, 1767, as if to enforce this right, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts, three in number: the first prohibited the New York legislature[1] from passing any more laws until it had made provision for the royal troops in the city; the second enforced more strictly the laws relating to trade; the third placed taxes on glass, paper, tea, lead, and painters' colors.[2] This was taxation without representation again, and once more the colonists rebelled. Merchants refused to import English goods. British dealers found their orders canceled and their vessels returning with the goods sent to America.

[1] Under the Mutiny Act, New York was obliged to provide the royal troops with beds, fire, candles, salt, and vinegar. The colony proposed to furnish these supplies as it saw fit, regardless of the royal instructions. The suspending of the legislature was a direct blow at all legislative independence in any of the colonies.

[2] From the money thus raised, governors, judges, and crown attorneys were to be paid, thus rendering them independent of the colonial legislatures; an army was to be supported and pensions were to be paid if any money was left. The people wisely saw in this an attempt on the part of the British king to compel the colonists to pay the salaries of men hostile to them and working solely for the benefit of the king.

Massachusetts sent a letter to the other colonies inviting them to a conference. Governor Bernard ordered the legislature of Massachusetts to recall the letter. Upon its refusal to do so the legislature was dissolved. The other colonial legislatures were ordered by their governors to ignore the letter, and, upon their refusal to do so, they were also dissolved.

128. The Boston Massacre. — In October, 1768, two regiments of English troops arrived in Boston and were encamped for a time on the common. They planted two cannon, facing the townhouse. The people resented the presence of the troops, and disturbances constantly arose. On the evening of March 5, 1770, a crowd had gathered around the barracks, and the soldiers were pelted with snowballs. A quarrel arose, a large throng gathered, and the soldiers fired on the people. They killed four and wounded seven[1] of the citizens, two of whom died from their wounds.[2] The following day there was an immense gathering of the people in the Old South Meeting House,[3] and Samuel Adams demanded the removal of the troops. That evening they were transferred to an island in the harbor. The Boston

[1] Among those killed was Crispus Attucks, a mulatto. A monument to him and his companions who fell stands on Boston common.

[2] The soldiers were tried for murder and were defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy. All were acquitted except two, who received slight punishment.

[3] They had first gathered in Faneuil Hall. This famous building was built in 1740 by Peter Faneuil, a merchant, as a market house for the town. It contains a spacious hall and has always been called "The Cradle of Liberty" because of the numerous meetings held there to protest against British tyranny.

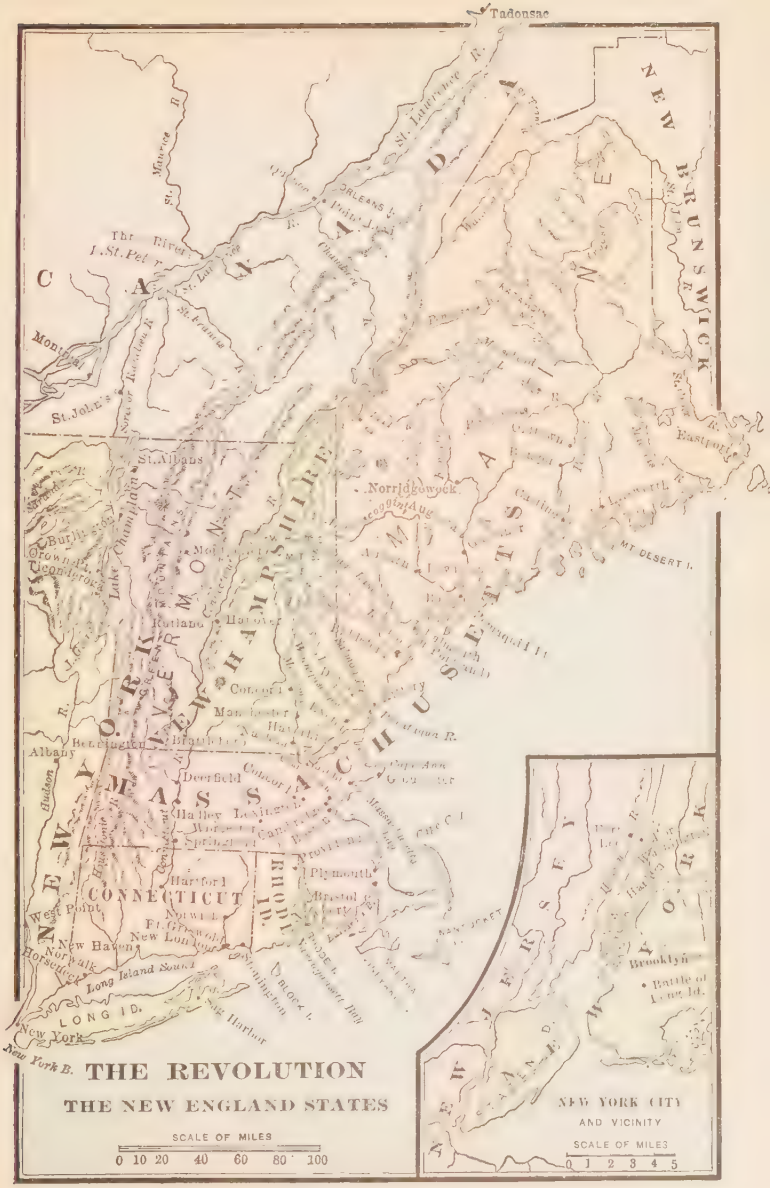
Massacre, as it was called, aroused the whole country. The Revolution was rapidly approaching.

129. The North Carolina Regulators; Burning of the *Gaspee*. — In no section did the tyranny and dishonesty of British officials fall more heavily than in the upper counties of North Carolina. Here the Irish farmers, who comprised the greater part of the population and were called "regulators," at length, in 1771, rose in revolt against Tryon, the governor. At Alamance, near the sources of the Cape Fear river, they fought a bloody battle with the colonial militia. The regulators were defeated, two hundred of them falling upon the field. This battle, the first of the Revolution, preceded Lexington by four years.

An event occurred the following year which showed still further the daring spirit of the colonists. To enforce the revenue laws, an eight-gun schooner, the *Gaspee*, was stationed in Narragansett bay. The commander overhauled vessels, stole provisions, and acted in so tyrannical a manner that the colonists resolved to take a decisive step. In June, 1772, the *Gaspee* while chasing an American ship ran aground. On the following night she was surrounded by a party of disguised men in eight boats and burned to the water's edge.[1]

130. Repeal of the Townshend Acts; Boston Tea Party. — On the day of the Boston Massacre a bill was introduced into the British Parliament to repeal the Townshend Acts, except the tax on tea. This was retained that the

[1] The British government offered three thousand dollars for the arrest of the guilty persons, but they were never discovered.


Tadousac
NEW BRUNSWICK
CANADA
NEW ENGLAND STATES
St. Johns
St. Albans
Norridgewock
Bangor
Eastport
MT. DESERT I.
Burlington
Rutland
Concord
Albany
Boston
Cape Ann
Deerfield
Worcester
Plymouth
Bristol
Harford
CONNECTICUT
New Haven
Norwalk
Stamford
Long Island Sound
LONG I.
New York
New York B.
Providence
Block I.
Newport
Portsmouth
Dover
Exeter
Concord
Manchester
Haverhill
Lake Champlain
Connecticut R.
Hudson R.
Merrimack R.
St. Lawrence R.
Kennebec R.
Penobscot R.
Androscoggin R.
Piscataqua R.
Saco R.
Passamaquoddy B.
Casco B.
Massachusetts B.
Cape Cod
Nantucket I.
Martha's Vineyard
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Bay of Fundy
Gaspé
Quebec
Montreal
Three Rivers
St. Peters
Mobile
Orleans
Chaudiere R.
St. Francis R.
St. John R.
Penobscot B.
Machias
Kennebunk
Portland
Augusta
Hallowell
Waterville
Lewiston
Brunswick
Saco
Biddeford
Kennebunkport
Portsmouth
Dover
Exeter
Hampton
Newburyport
Salem
Boston
Charlestown
Cambridge
Roxbury
Dorchester
Milton
Braintree
Weymouth
Hingham
Scituate
Marshfield
Duxbury
Pembroke
Hanover
Norwich
Middletown
Wethersfield
Hartford
Windsor
Farmington
Litchfield
Danbury
Stamford
Greenwich
Norwalk
Fairfield
Stratford
Milford
New Haven
Guilford
Saybrook
New London
Stonington
Groton
Plainfield
Windham
Pomfret
Brooklyn
Battle of Long Id.
NEW JERSEY
NEW YORK
Harlem R.
Hudson R.
East R.
Long Island Sound
THE REVOLUTION
THE NEW ENGLAND STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 40 60 80 100
NEW YORK (CITY)
AND VICINITY
SCALE OF MILES
0 1 2 3 4 5

right of Parliament to impose taxes could be maintained. Although it was a small tax,[1] the principle involved was the point at issue. If Parliament could legally tax tea, it could also levy any taxes it saw fit.[2]

The colonists therefore refused to buy or use the tea, even though under the new law it was cheaper in America than in England. Ships full of tea were sent to Charleston, Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and other ports. The people of Philadelphia and New York would not allow the vessels to land and sent them back. In Annapolis and Rhode Island the tea was burned. In Boston the British officers would not allow the vessels to be sent back. On the night of Dec. 16, 1773, a party of men, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships, ripped open three hundred and forty-two chests, and spilled the tea into the harbor. This was a direct affront to the king, and Parliament at once resolved to punish Massachusetts.

131. The New Laws of Parliament.[3] — *The first law*, called the "Boston Port Bill," ordered the port of Boston to be closed until the people had paid for the destroyed tea. The customhouse was removed to Marblehead,[4] and the seat of government to Salem.

[1] This tax was so small that the royal treasury would not have received more than fifteen hundred dollars a year.

[2] "It is doing nothing to repeal a few scraps of paper or pieces of parchment called 'Acts of Parliament,'" said William Pitt, "but our business is to repeal the ill-will and the animosity unfortunately now subsisting between Great Britain and North America."

[3] These laws were called by the colonists "The Five Intolerable Acts."

[4] Instead of seeking profit by the affliction of Boston, Salem and Marblehead generously offered their wharves to Boston merchants.

The second law provided that any magistrate, soldier, or officer of the crown arrested for murder should be tried in England.

The third law changed the charter of Massachusetts, provided for a military governor,[1] and forbade public meetings without permission of the governor, except for the purpose of electing officers.

The fourth law made it legal to quarter the troops on the people.[2]

The fifth law established the province of Quebec and granted freedom of worship to the Catholics in that province.[3]

132. The First Continental Congress. — The other colonies came to the assistance of Massachusetts. Led by Patrick Henry,[4] Virginia passed a resolution ordering the day on which the Boston Port Bill was to go into force to be a day of fasting, humiliation, and prayer.[5] When the governor heard of this resolution he dissolved

[1] Thomas Gage, who had commanded the British regulars in America for some years, was appointed military governor, but he was not recognized in any way by the people.

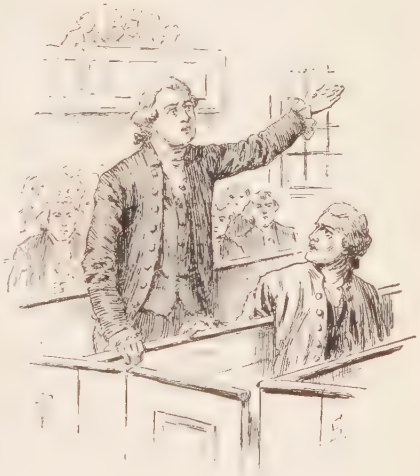
[2] That is, the colonies where soldiers were stationed were required to furnish them, not only with shelter, but also with firewood, drink, bedding, soap, and candles.

[3] As this act extended the province of Quebec southward to the Ohio, the colonies of Virginia, Connecticut, and Massachusetts claimed it violated their charters, which gave them the territory from sea to sea.

[4] In his famous speech, Patrick Henry exclaimed: "There is no longer any room for hope. We must fight. I repeat it, sir; we must fight."

[5] The other colonies also observed this date as a day of fasting. The bells in Philadelphia were muffled and tolled, and similar evidence of intense feeling was shown in other places.

the legislature. Committees of Correspondence were now named to write to the other colonies urging the necessity of another congress. The colonies approved without an exception, and Sept. 1, 1774, fifty-five delegates, representing every colony except Georgia, met in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia. This was the First Continental Congress. This Congress declared that it was unlawful for Great Britain to tax the people without their consent, to try persons without a jury, to dissolve the legislative assemblies, and to quarter troops on the people in time of peace. An address was issued to the people of Great Britain and to the English king. The delegates agreed not to trade with England until the objectionable laws were repealed. It was voted to meet again on May 10, 1775, and take action on the answer of the king to their petitions.



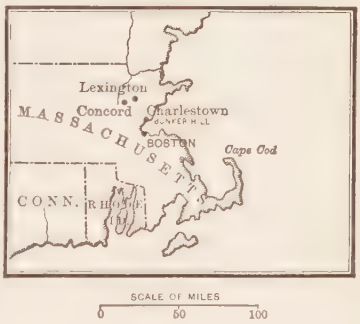
Patrick Henry's Famous Speech

133. Capture of Fort William and Mary, 1774. — One of the delegates to the First Continental Congress was John Sullivan of New Hampshire. Learning from Paul Revere (Dec. 13, 1774) that a force was coming to seize

the gunpowder and supplies in Fort William and Mary at Newcastle, New Hampshire, he assembled a company and surprised the fort, hauled down the flag, and carried off the supplies, consisting of one hundred barrels of powder and other stores, to Durham, where they were hidden in the church. These supplies were later sent to Bunker Hill just in time for use by the patriots in that battle. "For the first time in American history, the British flag was torn down in armed rebellion."

134. The Battles of Lexington and Concord, April 19, 1775. — General Gage, seeing the warlike feeling of the people, began to erect fortifications around Boston. The colonists collected ammunition and trained soldiers. Twenty thousand "minute men," citizens ready for duty at a minute's notice, were enrolled. General Gage heard of these preparations and learned that a large quantity of military supplies had been gathered at Concord. He planned to surprise and capture these stores and to this end sent a force of eight hundred regulars to carry out his plans. They were ordered to go by way of Lexington and arrest Samuel Adams and John Hancock, who were visiting there. The scheme was discovered and, by the aid of lanterns hung in the belfry of the Old North Church, Paul Revere learned of the route of the troops. He rode furiously forward, warning the inhabitants and also Adams and Hancock, who fled. When the British troops reached Lexington in the early morning (April 19, 1775) they saw the minute men drawn up on the common to oppose them. "Disperse, you rebels!" shouted Pitcairn, the British

commander, and on their refusal to do so, he ordered his soldiers to fire. Eight of the minute men fell dead and ten were wounded. From Lexington the British marched to Concord, where they again met the minute men, who "fired the shot heard round the world."[1] The English were repulsed. After destroying what few military stores they could find, they began the retreat to Boston. But the journey was a difficult one. On every side the minute men flocked in. From behind walls, trees, and fences they poured a deadly fire on the retreating British. Man after man fell from the ranks and, had not a fresh body of twelve hundred men met them at Lexington, the entire command would probably have been destroyed. Even against these new troops the minute men kept up their fatal fire till the British reached Charlestown, two hundred and seventy-three of their number having been lost.



135. Ethan Allen at Ticonderoga, May 10, 1775. — On the shores of Lake Champlain, guarding the route to Canada, were two forts, Ticonderoga and Crown Point. They were well supplied with all kinds of military stores

[1] Emerson has immortalized this battle by his famous lines:

By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood
And fired the shot heard round the world.

but were feebly garrisoned. Ethan Allen with a band of vigorous youths called the "Green Mountain Boys" resolved to surprise and capture the forts. On the night of May 9 he crossed lake Champlain in the darkness with eighty-three followers, among them being Benedict Arnold. At daybreak he appeared before the fort, rushed into the quarters of the commandant, and demanded the surrender of the fort. "In whose name?" asked the bewildered commandant. "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress!" shouted Allen. The fort surrendered, and two days later Crown Point with its immense military supplies fell. The patriots now controlled lakes Champlain and George and the route between New York and Canada.

136. Second Continental Congress; George Washington, Commander in Chief. — The Second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia, May 10, 1775, the day of the surrender of Ticonderoga. For the next six years it was the central governing body of the nation.[1] The most important act performed by this Congress was the appointment, by unanimous vote, of George Washington as commander in chief of the continental army.

137. Battle of Bunker Hill, June 17, 1775. — In the meantime stirring events were taking place in Boston. General Gage, the British commander, had been joined by reënforcements, and now had ten thousand men.

[1] While the First Continental Congress was merely an advisory body, the Second gradually assumed the powers of sovereignty. It assumed the defense of the colonies, raised armies, directed foreign affairs, and issued money for the troops.

He therefore decided to seize Bunker Hill, which overlooked the harbor and his camps. The Americans under Prescott also recognized the value of the position and on the night of June 16 quietly seized the hill and threw up intrenchments. When the surprised British saw the heights occupied by colonial troops they at once prepared to assault them. The British column moved up the hill. As the Americans had very little powder they were ordered not to fire till they saw the whites of the eyes of the enemy. They waited, and at the signal, in a blaze of musketry, the British line was swept away.

Bunker Hill Monument

A second line came up and under the deadly aim of the colonists was cut to pieces. A third time the British charged, and as the Americans had no powder left they were compelled to withdraw. The British loss was more than one thousand, the American less than half that number. While the Americans were compelled to retreat, the battle was of the greatest benefit to them, for it showed the world that the colonists could and would fight to the end for their liberties.

138. Expedition against Quebec; Death of Montgomery; Embassy to Canada. — Washington soon arrived in Cambridge and took command of the army, which

numbered about sixteen thousand men. It was decided to send an expedition against Quebec, and the command was given to Richard Montgomery.[1] He was ordered to sail from Ticonderoga and, after capturing Montreal, to move eastward against Quebec. Another force, under Benedict Arnold, was sent through Maine to join Montgomery. Arnold's soldiers suffered fearful hardships in the Maine woods, but he and his brave men pushed onward. At last they reached Quebec, where Montgomery, who had taken Montreal, met them. On Dec. 31, 1775, they attacked the strongest fortification in America and would, probably, have captured the city had not the brave Montgomery fallen mortally wounded. The expedition failed, and the soldiers returned in the following spring to Crown Point.

Congress now determined to win, if possible, the Canadians from the British allegiance and to that end resolved (Feb. 15, 1776) to send to Canada an embassy composed of Benjamin Franklin, Samuel Chase, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and Father John Carroll, later the

[1] Richard Montgomery was born in Ireland, Dec. 2, 1736. In May, 1774, he was sent as a delegate to the first Provincial Congress in New York City and in June of that same year was appointed a brigadier general in the continental army. In honor of his "patriotic conduct, enterprise, and perseverance," Congress erected a marble monument to him in St. Paul's Church in New York City. A tablet in the rocks at Quebec marks the spot where he fell. In 1818 his body was brought to New York. A special boat with emblems of mourning conveyed the body down the Hudson. "Slowly it passed his beloved country seat, the strains of a sad dirge rising softly to the porch where sat his widow quite alone, gazing down upon the coffin of her hero. When her friends came to get her, they found her lying prostrate in a swoon."

first Catholic Bishop in America. The mission was not successful, for the bitter attacks made upon the Quebec Act and the intolerant laws of the colonies led the Canadians to expect fairer treatment from England than from the American colonists.

139. The Evacuation of Boston; Victory at Fort Moultrie. — Washington while drilling his raw troops was tightening the chain of soldiery around Boston. Seeing the advantage of holding Dorchester Heights, which overlooked the city, he suddenly seized the hill (March 4, 1776) and during the darkness of night threw up earthworks. The British in the morning saw the Americans above them, with their cannon firmly planted to sweep their camp as well as their ships. Fearing to attack the intrenched colonists, they sailed away March 17 with all their troops to Halifax. They took with them nine hundred Tories,[1] a name given to those who preferred to remain subject to the king of England. "It was," says Edmund Burke, "more like the departure of a people than the retreat of an army." Three months later the English fleet appeared off Charleston harbor, where Colonel Moultrie with his brave troops had built a fortress of palmetto logs on Sullivans island. The British attacked with land forces, while their ships opened a heavy fire on the fort. The British troops were cut to pieces, while their vessels were so badly damaged that only one of

[1] The British left a large quantity of ammunition and heavy guns. A few days later an English ship loaded with military stores entered the harbor and was quickly seized.

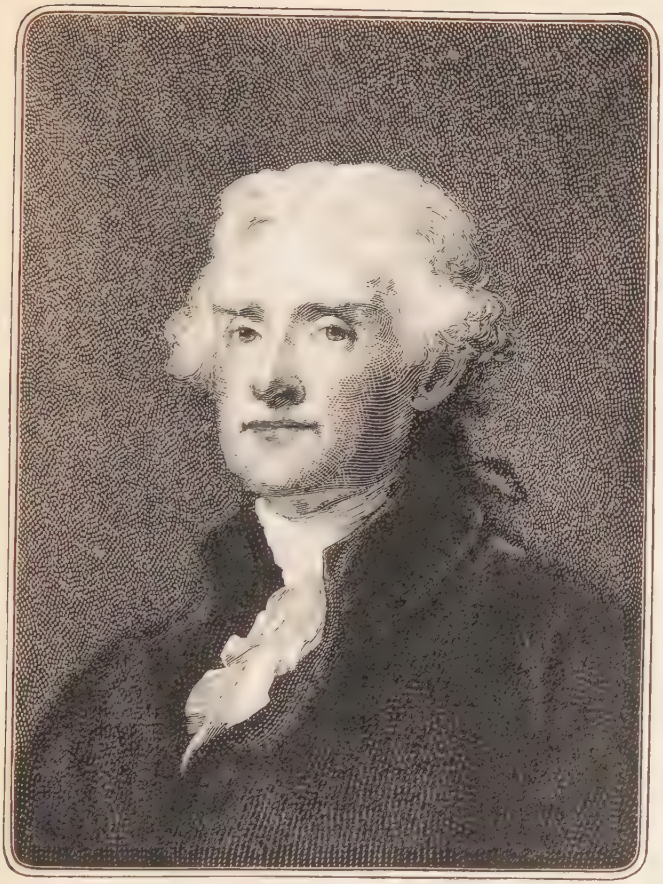
the whole fleet escaped unharmed. While the battle was raging the flag shaft was broken and fell outside the breastworks. Sergeant Jasper leaped over the walls and, amid the flying bullets, planted it again upon the ramparts. The fort was now named Fort Moultrie in honor of its brave commander.

140. Declaration of Independence. — In the meantime Congress saw that an absolute separation from Great Britain was inevitable,[1] and steps were now taken to that end. American ports were opened for free trade with all nations except Great Britain.

The Old Statehouse, Philadelphia, in which the Declaration of Independence was adopted and the Constitution of the United States framed

On May 15, 1776, Congress decided to suppress every kind of authority under the crown, and the colonies were asked to make for themselves new state governments. On June 7 Richard Henry Lee offered in Congress this resolution: "*Resolved* that these United States are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states." The motion

[1] A pamphlet by Thomas Paine, called *Common Sense*, was issued (January, 1776) with the approval of Franklin and Samuel Adams. This pamphlet, which boldly declared that the time had come for a separation from Great Britain, had a great influence on the minds of the colonists. Over a hundred thousand copies were sold, and it paved the way for the decisive action of the Declaration of Independence.



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

was seconded by John Adams, and a committee of five, with Thomas Jefferson as chairman, was appointed to draw up the declaration.[1] Action was postponed for three weeks, to learn the opinion of the colonies. At first Pennsylvania, Maryland, and South Carolina did not favor it, and New York was doubtful. On July 2, however, it was carried unanimously, twelve states voting in its favor. On July 4 the Declaration of Independence, written by Jefferson, was adopted by Congress.[2] The colonies, now the United States of America, were declared to be absolved from all allegiance to the British crown.[3] The joy of the people at the news of

Charles Carroll of Carrollton

[1] The five members were Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. Jefferson wrote the entire Declaration, and it was adopted virtually as he presented it except a clause denouncing the slave trade. The Declaration was adopted July 4, 1776, but it was not signed until almost a month later, August 2.

[2] Within two weeks a committee submitted to Congress the "Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between the States." They were adopted by Congress and later were ratified by practically all the states. Congress exercised its authority under these articles.

[3] One of the signers was Charles Carroll from Maryland. The story that some one remarked there were many Carrolls in that state and he added the words "of Carrollton," that he might bear the full

the adoption of the Declaration of Independence was unbounded. It was read to Washington's army and in all the cities and towns throughout the colonies. Bells were rung and bonfires lighted; in Philadelphia the royal arms in the room where Congress was sitting were cast out and the great bell rang forth joyfully; in New York the leaden statue of George III was pulled down and melted into bullets.

141. Plan of the British; Battle of Long Island. — At the departure of the British from Boston Washington believed they intended to strike New York, capture the Hudson, and thus cut off New England from the other colonies. Washington was right in his judgment, for early in July, 1776, a few days after the Declaration of Independence was proclaimed, General Howe arrived with twenty-five thousand men and encamped on Staten island. His brother, Lord Howe, who had been made admiral by the British government, arrived on July 12. General Putnam, with five thousand Americans, was intrenched on Brooklyn Heights, a point which overlooked and commanded New York City. General Sullivan guarded, with four thousand men, the approaches to the Heights. Lord Howe attacked the American forces, and the battle of Long island was

responsibility of his act, has no historic basis, as that was the usual way of signing his name. Charles Carroll was born in Annapolis, Sept. 20, 1737, and was educated abroad. On his return to this country he took up the fight against the taxation of the people for the Church of England. In 1776 he represented Maryland in the Continental Congress. He was the last surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence. He died in Baltimore, Nov. 14, 1832.

fiercely fought (Aug. 27, 1776). The Americans, outnumbered by the British, were defeated with heavy loss, General Sullivan being taken prisoner. The British, aided by their war vessels, now endeavored to hem in the Americans by land and sea. The position of the patriots was indeed perilous, when fortunately a heavy fog fell over Long island and the waters of the harbor. Washington took advantage of it and with the utmost secrecy removed his troops to the mainland of New York City.[1]

142. The British occupy New York; Washington retreats northward; Fort Washington taken. — In a few days the British crossed the river and occupied the city of New York.[2] Washington had taken a

[1] At the first embarkation of the American troops the wife of a Tory sent her negro servant to inform the British. He met a German sentinel who could not understand him and locked him up as a suspicious character. In the morning a British officer examined him and, hearing his story, rushed off to examine the American outposts. The army had disappeared, and the last boats were then halfway across to New York.

[2] To learn the plans of the British Nathan Hale went into their lines. He was recognized and hanged as a spy. His last words were, "I regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

position at Harlem Heights, where Howe attacked him (Sept. 16, 1776), but was repulsed. Hoping to attack Washington in a less advantageous position, Howe moved into Westchester and again attacked the patriots at White Plains, gaining a slight victory. Washington thereupon fell back to the intrenched camp at Northcastle and later entered New Jersey.[1]

Howe now turned his attention to Fort Washington, which commanded the Hudson river. Washington had advised the abandonment of the fort to save its military stores and the three thousand troops in its garrison. General Greene, however, who was in command, believed he could hold it successfully. On November 16 the British attacked and took it after a heroic resistance[2] on the part of the patriots.

143. Retreat across New Jersey. — At the capture of Fort Washington General Washington was at Hackensack on the west side of the Hudson with seven thousand men. General Charles Lee, with an equal number of men, was on the east side of the Hudson at Northcastle. Washington ordered Lee to cross the river, join forces with him, and face the enemy with the full

[1] During the summer of 1776 a British fleet under Carleton moved down from Canada to invade New York. With a hastily constructed squadron in lake Champlain, Benedict Arnold opposed him vigorously. Though he lost most of his ships, Arnold succeeded in landing his men at Ticonderoga. When Carleton appeared before that fort he doubted his ability to take it, so he returned to Canada.

[2] The British loss was about five hundred. Three thousand patriots fell prisoners in the hands of the British, together with large military stores. Many of the American prisoners were murdered by their captors.

strength of the army. Lee, hoping by a brilliant stroke to be raised to the supreme command, disobeyed and marched his troops slowly to Morristown.[1]

Washington was, therefore, compelled to retreat through New Jersey and to cross the Delaware. Cornwallis, in full pursuit, reached this river as the Americans landed on the opposite side. Not a boat could be found to transport the British troops, Washington having captured every boat for seventy miles up and down the river. With keen disappointment Cornwallis was compelled to encamp until he could cross the river on the ice. General Sullivan assumed command of the troops at Morristown

Nathan Hale[2]

[1] Lee took up his quarters at a tavern three miles from his lines at Baskingridge. A Tory rode eighteen miles to Brunswick and gave this information to the British. The next morning a force of British dragoons suddenly appeared and Lee was a prisoner. The British, believing Lee to be the most scientific of the American generals, boasted of having taken the American palladium. His capture was a distinct advantage to the Americans as General Sullivan took his command.

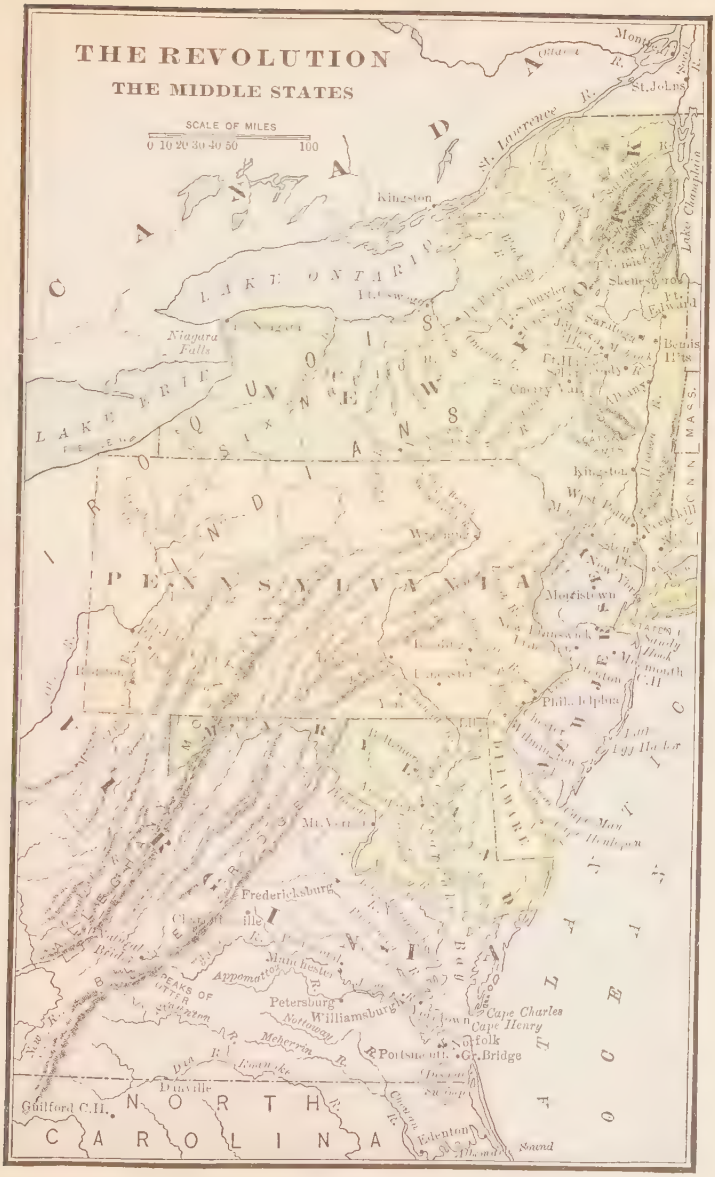
[2] This statue of the brave American hero stands in City Hall Park in New York City.

on the capture of Lee, and immediately pushed on to join Washington.

144. Battle of Trenton. — Washington now determined to strike a decisive blow. Three regiments of Hessians under Colonel Rahl were stationed at Trenton. On Christmas night, while the Hessians[1] were celebrating the holiday, Washington crossed the Delaware through the floating ice. It was bitterly cold, and a blinding snowstorm was raging. After innumerable difficulties he reached the east bank, marched nine miles to Trenton, where he fell upon the Hessians and completely routed them. One thousand men and thirty-two officers were taken prisoners. Colonel Rahl was mortally wounded. The Americans lost only four men. With his prisoners and military stores Washington now recrossed the Delaware.

145. Robert Morris' Great Aid; Distress of the Troops. — The brilliant victory at Trenton aroused new courage in the hearts of all the patriots. The American troops now saw the people everywhere pulling down the red rags which had been fastened to their doors to secure British good will and protection. Hessians were

[1] The king of England, not being able to secure troops in his own country to wage war in America, sought to purchase them in Europe. He asked Russia to sell him twenty thousand men, but Russia, then, as ever since, friendly to America, declined. At length the prince of Hesse-Cassel and other insignificant German rulers sold him twenty thousand troops. Since that time the word "Hessian" has been a term of contempt. The people of Germany were indignant at the sale of the troops. Frederick the Great ordered, it is said, his customhouse officers to charge toll on each Hessian crossing his territory as they did on cattle going to market.


THE REVOLUTION
THE MIDDLE STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50 100
CANADA
St. Lawrence R.
St. Johns
Kingston
LAKE ONTARIO
Niagara Falls
LAKE ERIE
Lake Champlain
Ft. Edward
Saratoga
Bemis Hts
Cherry Valley
Albany
Kingston
West Point
Peekskill
Morristown
Philadelphia
Mt. Vernon
Fredericksburg
Manchester
Appomattox R.
Petersburg
Williamsburg
Nottoway R.
Meherrin R.
Portsmouth
Norfolk
Gr. Bridge
Cape Charles
Cape Henry
Danville
Guilford C.H.
Edenton
Sound
NORTH CAROLINA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CONN.
MASS.

marched through the streets of Philadelphia to convince the people of the victory, and a Hessian flag was sent to Congress at Baltimore. The rejoicings of the people were unbounded. Congress bestowed on Washington (December 27) almost unlimited military power for a period of six months, that he might raise and maintain a larger army. This was indeed necessary, for new dangers now beset the patriot army. The enlistments of many of the regiments were expiring, and they desired to return home. They had been without suitable clothing for months, while the paper money was constantly falling in value, till it became practically worthless. Washington saw it was necessary to have "hard" money. He wrote to his friend Robert Morris in Philadelphia to help him. "If you could possibly collect a sum, if it were but one hundred and fifty pounds, it would be of service." On New Year's morning Morris went from door to door in Philadelphia, waking up his friends and asking for money. By noon he had raised fifty thousand dollars, which he sent to Washington. The soldiers reenlisted, and the name of Robert Morris deserves a place among the saviors of his country.

146. Battle of Princeton. — Cornwallis, hearing of the disaster at Trenton, now rushed on with eight thousand men to attack Washington, who had again crossed the Delaware. The Americans had taken a position near Trenton on the south bank of a small stream — the Assunpink — that flowed into the Delaware. Cornwallis arrived late in the day and postponed his attack until the next morning. With the Delaware full

of floating ice, Washington's retreat was cut off and his position was extremely dangerous. Cornwallis viewing the situation exclaimed with joy, "At last we have run down the old fox and we will bag him in the morning." But Washington did not intend to be caught. While his men were apparently throwing up intrenchments, and the camp fires were burning brightly, Washington slipped up the little creek, passed behind Cornwallis, and fell on his rear guard at Princeton.[1] The roar of cannon in his rear awoke Cornwallis to his danger. The British were defeated. Washington took a strong position at Morristown Heights, and as this threatened his line of supplies Cornwallis ordered a general retreat of the British to New York.

Philadelphia was safe, and Washington spent the winter undisturbed at Morristown. The brilliant military skill shown by Washington excited the greatest admiration in Europe. Many nations, especially the French, now desired to give secret or open aid to the struggling patriots. A young nobleman of France, Marquis de Lafayette, seeking in vain to get help from his country, secretly fitted out at his own expense a ship and came to America to join the forces of Washington without pay.[2] His historic words were, "When

[1] Even the English admired Washington's genius. Horace Walpole said: "His march through our lines is allowed to have been a prodigy of generalship. In one word, I look upon a great part of America as lost to this country." It is said that Frederick the Great pronounced these campaigns as among the most brilliant in military history.

[2] On his arrival Lafayette offered his services to Congress. Being impatient at the delay in accepting his offer, he called at the door of

first I heard of American independence my heart was enlisted!"

At this time a number of German and Polish officers arrived to aid the patriot cause; among them were De Kalb,[1] Baron Steuben,[2] Pulaski,[3] and Kosciuszko.[4] Baron Steuben had been trained under Frederick the Great and rendered very valuable service in drilling the American troops.

147. The British Plans of Campaign; Battle of Brandywine; Howe takes Philadelphia; Battle of Germantown. — The British plan of campaign for 1777 was as follows:

1. General Howe was to seize the city of Philadelphia, the capital of the "rebel government," and thereafter move northward to join General Burgoyne.

2. General Burgoyne with nine thousand men was to come down from Canada, opening the route to the

Congress. On learning that nothing had been done with his application he sent in the following note: "After my sacrifices I have the right to ask two favors: one is to serve at my own expense; the other, to begin by serving as a volunteer." This manly note had the desired effect. Congress at once appointed him major general.

[1] John De Kalb was born in Germany and later served in the French army. Coming to America in 1777, he was appointed a major general by Congress and was killed, fighting bravely, in the battle of Camden.

[2] Baron Steuben was born in Prussia. At the close of the Revolutionary War he received a large grant of land in New York from Congress and remained in America until his death (1794).

[3] Casimir Pulaski was born in Poland. He served on Washington's staff and fought bravely at Brandywine and Germantown. While in command of the celebrated Pulaski's legion he fell, gallantly fighting, before Savannah in 1779.

[4] Thaddeus Kosciuszko was a native of Poland and was an engineer of great skill. He erected the fortifications of West Point. After the war he returned to fight for the freedom of his native land.

Hudson, thus completely cutting off New England from the other colonies.

3. St. Leger with two thousand men was to ascend the St. Lawrence to Oswego and then, coming down the Mohawk valley, enlist the aid and sympathy of the Six Nations.

To carry out his part of the campaign, Howe intended to march across New Jersey and, capturing Philadelphia, turn northward to aid Burgoyne. Washington prevented this movement, and Howe decided, upon the advice of his prisoner General Charles Lee, it is said, to go by water to Philadelphia. On July 23, with eighteen thousand men, he sailed from New York and a week later appeared off the entrance to Delaware bay. Signal fires along the coast told the patriots the position of the fleet. Washington marched quickly south with eleven thousand troops. Howe did not sail up Delaware bay, but put again to sea and appeared next at the mouth of Chesapeake bay. Washington marched to Wilmington (Delaware), and Howe, landing his troops, hurried to meet him. They met at Chadds Ford on

the Brandywine river[1] (Sept. 11, 1777). The Americans were driven back, and Howe entered Philadelphia two weeks later. Washington, although driven back, had succeeded in delaying Howe so long that coöperation with Burgoyne was impossible. Washington gave the British no peace. A short time later (Oct. 4, 1777) he made an attack on their camp at Germantown, but, being repulsed, went into winter quarters at Valley Forge.[2]

148. Burgoyne's Expedition; Battle of Bennington, Aug. 16, 1777. — Let us see how Burgoyne had fared in the meantime. Leaving Montreal in June on his eventful march southward with an army of eight thousand men, composed of English, Hessians, and Indians, he captured forts Crown Point and Ticonderoga, and pushed on towards Fort Edward (July 5). General Schuyler, in command of the American forces, made his journey a difficult one. By burning bridges, felling trees across the paths and highways, choking up the rivers, and carrying off all the cattle and foodstuffs,

[1] This was the first battle in America in which the gallant Lafayette took part. With him was the brave Polish count Pulaski.

[2] The sufferings of the American army at Valley Forge were indescribable. The soldiers in their rude huts were exposed to the severe winter weather and were compelled, many of them, to sleep on the frozen earth. They were without suitable clothing, many being barefooted. Their food was flour mixed with water. Agents of the British were constantly trying to bribe the soldiers to leave the patriot army and return to the king. A conspiracy was formed against Washington to displace him from his command. From its leader it was called the Conway Cabal. It failed in its purpose, and Washington rose higher than ever in the esteem of his countrymen.

Schuyler caused Burgoyne so much delay that he did not reach Fort Edward until the latter part of July, — twenty-four days to march twenty-six miles.

Hearing that the Americans had collected large military stores at Bennington, in the present state of Vermont, Burgoyne dispatched one thousand men under Colonel Baum to seize them. The brave New Hampshire militia and Green Mountain Boys, under Colonel John Stark,[1] were waiting for them. On the 16th of August the Americans met the British. When Stark saw the enemy he cried: "See, men! There are the red-coats! We must beat them to-day, or Molly Stark is a widow." The patriots were successful and took about seven hundred prisoners. The American loss was only fifty-six men killed and wounded.[2] This victory enabled

[1] General John Stark was born of Irish parentage in Londonderry, New Hampshire, Aug. 28, 1728. He had already distinguished himself at Lexington, Bunker Hill, and Trenton. The battle of Bennington raised him to a front rank in the nation's heroes. He died in Manchester, New Hampshire, May 8, 1822.

[2] A farmer who had five sons in this battle who were fighting for their country was told that one of them had been unfortunate. "Has he been a coward or a traitor?" he asked anxiously. "Worse than that," was the reply. "He has been killed fighting bravely." With a sigh of relief but with a choking voice, the old man answered, "Then I am satisfied."

the patriots to get in the rear of Burgoyne and cut off his supplies from Canada.

149. Fort Stanwix; Surrender of Burgoyne, Oct. 17, 1777. — In the meantime St. Leger had landed at Oswego and, pushing eastward, besieged Fort Stanwix (August 3), the site of the present city of Rome, New York.[1] Schuyler, hearing of the distress of the fort, sent Benedict Arnold to relieve it. After three days of siege the garrison rushed out and captured five British flags. They hoisted these upside down over the ramparts, and above them raised a flag made of a piece of blue jacket, a white shirt, and some red flannel. In June Congress had adopted as our national flag the stars and stripes, and at Fort Stanwix it was for the first time thrown to the breeze. On the approach of Arnold,[2] St. Leger fled to Oswego, and another blow was given to Burgoyne's hopes.

Schuyler was now removed from the command, and Gates took his place. Burgoyne, seeing the enemy

[1] General Nicholas Herkimer with eight hundred militia was en route to relieve the garrison in Fort Stanwix when he was attacked in a ravine near Oriskany by Joseph Brant and his Mohawk warriors. Both sides suffered fearful losses, and Herkimer was fatally wounded.

[2] Arnold resorted to a stratagem to frighten the Indians who were with St. Leger. A half-witted Tory boy who had been condemned to death as a spy was promised his life if he would go to the British camp and report the advance of a large body of Americans. Filling his coat with bullet holes, he rushed headlong among St. Leger's Indians. When asked how many Americans were coming he pointed to the leaves of the trees. The Indians, thoroughly terrified, threw down their arms and, after sacking the camp, scattered through the woods in all directions. During St. Leger's retreat these Indians, his former allies, hung on the flanks of his army, killing and plundering the British with true savage glee.

drawing around him, his supplies becoming scarcer every day, and his Indian allies deserting, attacked the Americans at Bemis Heights near Saratoga September 19. An indecisive battle was fought, in which Benedict Arnold showed great bravery.

On October 7 Burgoyne again attacked the Americans at Stillwater, but was badly defeated by Arnold, whose leg was shattered by a musket ball. Giving up all hope of assistance from Howe, hemmed in on all sides, Burgoyne surrendered, Oct. 17, 1777, at Saratoga, his whole army of six thousand men and his military stores.

The battle of Saratoga was one of the decisive battles of the world.[1] It had most important results for the American cause. It completely destroyed the plan of the war, prevented English control of the Hudson and New York state, secured the aid of France, and induced the English to seek reconciliation.

150. The French Alliance; the British retreat to Philadelphia; Battle of Monmouth. — Congress had sent Benjamin Franklin to Paris in October, 1776, to seek the aid of the French king.[2] For a long time he was

[1] No military event can be said to have exercised more important influence on the future fortunes of mankind than the complete defeat of Burgoyne's expedition in 1777; a defeat which rescued the revolted colonies from certain subjection and which, by inducing the courts of France and Spain to attack England in their behalf, insured the independence of the United States. — CREASY, *Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.*

[2] As early as May, 1776, France had sent two hundred thousand dollars to aid the American cause and in July of the same year merchandise to the value of almost six hundred thousand dollars. At the same time she allowed American privateers to fit out in her ports.

unsuccessful. The surrender of Burgoyne and the renewed attempts by the king of England at reconciliation with the revolted colonies induced the king of France to sign a treaty Feb. 6, 1778. By this treaty the Americans were bound to accept no terms of peace until the British government should recognize the independence of the United States. Spain and Holland afterwards joined France. A French fleet was now dispatched to our assistance. Lord Howe had been superseded in the command of the British by Sir Henry Clinton. Hearing of the approach of the French fleet, Clinton left Philadelphia and marched to New York. Washington pressed behind him and overtook the British rear guard at Monmouth, where he attacked it. At the moment of victory Charles Lee,[1] who had been exchanged and had again received a command, ordered a disgraceful retreat. Washington fortunately came up in time to save his army, and the British, having lost two thousand men, hurried on to New York.[2]

151. Battle of Butts Hill, Newport; Capture of Stony Point. — Washington now hoped to take New York City with the aid of the French ships under Count d'Estaing, but the sand bars at the entrance to the

[1] For his cowardice or treachery in this battle, Lee was tried by court-martial and suspended from the army. For insulting Washington, he was later expelled, and died in obscurity.

[2] While carrying water to the tired soldiers, Molly Pitcher saw her husband shot down at his cannon. She at once took his place and loaded and fired the gun during the battle. Washington, in recognition of her bravery, made her a lieutenant, and Congress gave her half pay for life. She died in 1833, and her grave at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, is marked by a monument, erected by a grateful people in her honor.

harbor prevented their approach. He dispatched the fleet, therefore, to attack Newport, which was held by the British.

The land force was commanded by General Sullivan, who was aided by Lafayette; a disastrous storm scattered the fleet, and the Americans were attacked in their intrenchments on Butts Hill (Aug. 29, 1778). The British were repulsed with severe losses. This was the last campaign fought in the North between the two armies. After the British withdrew from Newport New York City was the only point north of Virginia held by them until the war closed.

Hoping to draw General Washington away from New York, Clinton sent expeditions to ravage unprotected places. Marthas Vineyard and New Bedford were swept by fire; Portsmouth and Norfolk, in Virginia, were burned and the defenseless citizens murdered. In Connecticut New Haven, Fairfield, and Norwalk were destroyed. These raids were marked with a trail of blood and cruelty, resembling more the warfare of savages than of civilized men.

Washington, however, had other plans in view. He quietly sent (July, 1779) General Anthony Wayne[1] —

[1] Anthony Wayne was born in Pennsylvania of Irish parentage. He was appointed a brigadier general and fought heroically at Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. Congress gave him a vote of thanks for the brilliant exploit at Stony Point. He took a leading part in the operations of Yorktown when Cornwallis surrendered. He was later a member of the convention which ratified the Constitution of the United States and was made a major general. He was given command of the army against the Indians, whom he thoroughly defeated. He told

"Mad Anthony," he was called, because of his bravery — up the Hudson to capture Stony Point. This was an important post in the river below West Point, and had been captured by Clinton six weeks before. With twelve hundred men, at midnight July 15, Wayne silently stole up the hill towards the fort.[1] Before the garrison was aware of their presence they sprang over the outworks and carried all before them at the point of the bayonet. Wayne destroyed the fort, as he was not strong enough to hold it, and withdrew, taking with him all the military stores.

152. Indian Warfare; the Massacres in Wyoming and Cherry Valley. — The Indians were now let loose on the frontier settlements. The Seneca tribe and a regiment of Tories, led by Colonel John Butler, invaded the Wyoming valley in Pennsylvania. Fighting against overwhelming numbers, the brave American patriots were surrounded (July 3, 1778) and defeated.

The Indians put their captives to death with the most horrible tortures. The Tories rivaled in ferocity their savage allies. The beautiful valley was left a smoldering desert, and the women and children, driven to the woods, perished miserably.

them he would rise from his grave against them if they broke the treaty. He died in 1796 and is buried in Old St. David's at Radnor, the churchyard which Longfellow has described so beautifully in his poem, "Old St. David's."

[1] It is said that Wayne killed every dog within a distance of three miles lest their barking might alarm the garrison. For the same reason, not a gun was loaded.

Another band of Tories and Indians, under the infamous Joseph Brant,[1] came up the Mohawk valley and fell on Cherry Valley (Nov. 10, 1778), where they put to death men, women, and children. Washington determined to stop these massacres and sent General Sullivan against the Indians, whom he met and overwhelmed at Newtown, on the site of the present city of Elmira. With fire and sword Sullivan now swept like a whirlwind through the territory of the Iroquois, utterly destroying forty villages. The crops were burned, the fruit trees cut down, and the land left desolate. The power of the Indian confederacy was broken forever.

153. War in the West; George Rogers Clark; Father Gibault. — The British commander at Detroit, Colonel Hamilton, urged the Indians to a united attack on the American frontier settlements.[2] A young Virginian, George Rogers Clark, was commissioned to lead an expedition into the West and seize the English forts between the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. Embarking (June 26, 1778) at Fort Pitt, they sailed down the river to a point forty miles above its mouth. Here they landed and began their perilous journey across swamps,

[1] Joseph Brant was a Mohawk Indian who had been well educated, and became later a missionary for the Church of England. At the outbreak of the Revolution he placed himself at the head of the Mohawks, as thorough a savage as the most bloodthirsty of his followers. With his Tory allies he spread death and destruction wherever he waged his inhuman warfare.

[2] To encourage them in their murderous work, Hamilton paid the Indians bounties only on scalps. As they received nothing for prisoners, they took none.

through forests and thickets, at times without food or shelter. Kaskaskia fell into their hands, and, a little later, Cahokia, without firing a shot. Here Clark met Father Peter Gibault,[1] who joined himself to the American cause. Setting out at once for Vincennes, Father Gibault induced the French and the Catholic Indians to yield to Clark, who, in consequence, took the fort without firing a

Clark's Expedition

[1] Father Gibault himself, like Clark, had reason to complain of his later treatment. "At one time," says Roosevelt, "he was suffering from poverty, due to his loyal friendship to the Americans; for he had advanced Clark's troops both goods and peltries for which he had never received payment. In a petition to Congress he showed how this failure to repay him had reduced him to want." "Next to Clark and Vigo," says Judge John Law, "the United States are more indebted to Father Gibault for the accession of the states comprised in what was the original Northwest territory than to any other man."

Clark's last years were spent in poverty near Louisville. Virginia, as a mark of her esteem, in his declining days sent a committee to him with a beautiful sword. Clark exclaimed: "When Virginia needed a sword, I gave her one. She sends me now a toy. I want bread!" He thrust the sword into the ground and broke it with his crutch.

François Vigo was an Italian who escaped from captivity and brought Clark news of the weakness of the British garrison at Vincennes. He was ever the stanch friend of the Americans.

shot. The British later took the fort, but could hold it only a short time, for Clark again captured it. This territory was annexed to Virginia and was called the county of Illinois. This heroic march of Clark and the friendly offices of Father Gibault gave us the title to this section. The Great Lakes, instead of the Ohio, became, in consequence, the southern boundary of British possessions at the conclusion of the war.

154. War on the Ocean; Barry and Jones. — At the outbreak of the war the patriots were greatly hampered by the lack of a naval force. While no regular navy was available to destroy British shipping, private cruisers were built, and during the next four years did great damage to English vessels. These cruisers crossed the sea, hovered around the coasts of England, and captured in three years six hundred vessels. Congress, in the meantime, had appointed Esek Hopkins of Rhode Island commander of a little navy of five ships, but this navy was soon destroyed or dispersed. Another attempt at the formation of a navy was made by the purchase of several merchant vessels. The command of one of these vessels, the *Lexington*, was given to Captain John Barry.[1] The *Lexington*, which was named

[1] Commodore John Barry was born in Wexford, Ireland, and came to America at the age of thirteen. He rapidly rose in the merchant marine and at twenty five was captain of one of the best packet ships of the day. At the outbreak of the Revolution he gave up the best ship in America to serve the patriot cause. Lord Howe offered him command of the best frigate in the English navy and fifteen thousand guineas if he would join the British forces. Barry answered, "I have devoted myself to the cause of America and not the value and command of the whole British fleet can seduce me from it."

in honor of the first battle of the Revolution, soon met and captured the British man-of-war *Edward*, after a vigorous contest. Barry fought battles everywhere along the coasts, inflicting severe losses on the enemy. In March, 1794, Captain Barry was placed at the head of the list of commanders, with the rank of commodore. He has been called "The Father of the American Navy." In Captain Barry's squadron, which set out to maintain the American flag upon the sea, was John Paul Jones,[1] a lieutenant on the *Alfred*. Later Jones made his name forever illustrious in naval annals. With three vessels he sailed boldly for the English coasts. His vessel, the *Bonhomme Richard*, had been given to him by the king of France. Off Flamborough Head, a bold promontory on the east coast of England, he met an English fleet from the Baltic under the conduct of two men-of-war, the

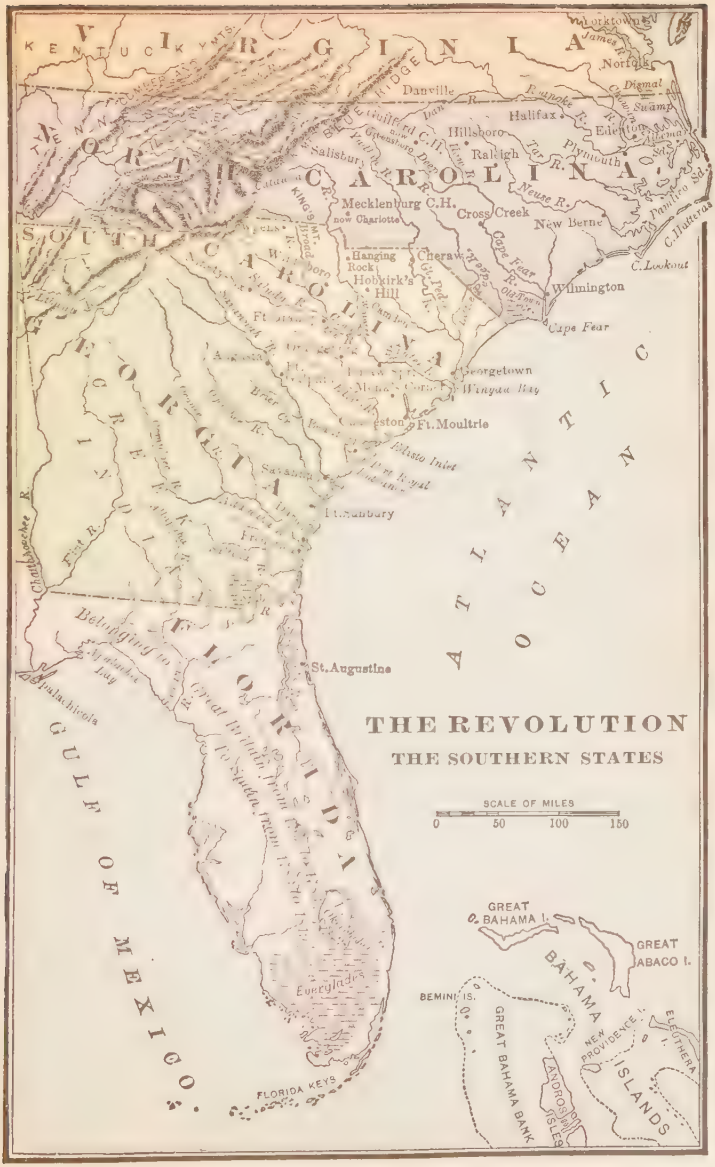
John Barry

[1] John Paul Jones was born in Scotland, and entered the American service in 1775. He made many cruises and received for his victory over the *Serapis* a gold medal with the thanks of Congress and a gold sword from the king of France. After the Revolution he became a rear admiral in the Russian navy, and died in Paris in 1792. He was a man of remarkable courage and daring. In one of Jones' maneuvers during the great sea fight the British captain asked, "Have you struck?" "Struck!" replied Jones; "I have not begun to fight!"

Serapis and the *Countess of Scarborough*. Although the odds were against him, Jones at once made an attack, and after a hand-to-hand struggle captured both vessels. He transferred his men and stores to the *Serapis* just in time, for his own vessel soon sank beneath the waves.

155. The War in the South; Savannah taken; Fall of Charleston. — In 1778 the war was transferred to the South, the British hoping to capture each state in succession. Georgia passed first into the hands of the English, and the royal governor was again placed in office. The Americans under Lincoln, aided by the French fleet, attempted (October, 1779) to recapture Savannah, but were badly defeated. They lost one thousand men, among them being the gallant Polish officer Pulaski and the hero of Fort Moultrie, Sergeant Jasper. Lincoln withdrew to South Carolina. Clinton now came down from New York with eight thousand men and was later joined by three thousand others. Encouraged by their successes, they now pushed northward and surrounded Charleston, where Lincoln had intrenched himself. The British prepared to assault the city with overwhelming numbers, and Lincoln, seeing how hopeless his position was, surrendered his army of three thousand men with his military stores. It was a fearful blow to the patriot cause.[1] The British could now overrun South Carolina; but the militia, under the brave

[1] The English statesman, Horace Walpole, exclaimed on hearing of the surrender, "We look on America as at our feet." But he was sorely mistaken, as events soon proved.


THE REVOLUTION
THE SOUTHERN STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
FLORIDA
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
KENTUCKY MTS.
TENN.
Danville
Halifax
Hillsboro
Raleigh
Salisbury
Mecklenburg C.H.
now Charlotte
Cross Creek
New Berne
Wilmington
Cape Fear
Hanging Rock
Hobkirk's Hill
Cheraw
Georgetown
Winyaw Bay
Ft. Moultrie
Ellisto Inlet
Ft. Sunbury
St. Augustine
Belonging to Great Britain from 1763 to 1783
Everglades
FLORIDA KEYS
Chattahoochee R.
Apalachicola
Apalachicola Bay
Pamlico Sd.
C. Hatteras
C. Lookout
Norfolk
Dismal Swamp
Edenton
Plymouth
Tar R.
Neuse R.
Cape Fear R.
Old Town
Dan R.
Roanoke R.
Yadkin R.
Deep R.
Broad R.
Wilmington
Ft. Sunbury
Savannah
Brier Cr.
Chattahoochee R.
Flint R.
GREAT BAHAMA I.
GREAT ABACO I.
BAHAMA ISLANDS
BEMINI IS.
GREAT BAHAMA BANK
NEW PROVIDENCE I.
ELEUTHERA I.
LANDROS ISLES

Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and Clark, kept up an incessant warfare, striking first here, then there, until the British forces left the state.

156. Battle of Camden and Kings Mountain. — Congress now placed Gates in command of the army in the South against the recommendation of Washington, who had no faith in him. He pushed into South Carolina, where the British under Cornwallis were intrenched at Camden. Gates attacked the enemy (Aug. 16, 1780), but was completely routed. The brave De Kalb was mortally wounded, and Gates saved himself by fleeing on horseback till he was in safety, sixty miles from the battlefield. This was perhaps the darkest hour of the Revolution, for the three southern colonies were now in the hands of the British. Two American armies had been crushed and no force apparently remained to withstand the onward march of the British to Virginia.

But the patriots were not yet conquered. A short time later (Oct. 7, 1780) a force of British regulars and Tories under General Ferguson was attacked in the highlands of South Carolina at a point called Kings Mountain. The patriots were the backwoodsmen, who with deadly aim cut to pieces the British force. Ferguson was killed and his command annihilated

157. Treason of Benedict Arnold, Sept. 22, 1780. — About this time a heavy blow fell on the patriot cause. Benedict Arnold, who had fought so bravely at Ticonderoga, Quebec, and Saratoga, formed a plot to deliver up the most important post in America, — West Point. Two years previously Arnold was in

command of Philadelphia and was involved in troubles of various natures. He was sentenced to be reprimanded by Washington. Remembering Arnold's bravery and moved by deep pity for him, Washington's reprimand was of the mildest sort. Arnold was stung, however, by the disgrace and sought revenge. Six months later he asked Washington for the command of West Point, and obtaining it, at once entered into correspondence with Clinton to betray it. Major John André was selected to carry out the details. He met Arnold at West Point, but on his way back[1] was captured with the fatal papers concealed in his boots. He was tried and hanged as a spy. Arnold escaped to the British vessel, the *Vulture*. He received for his infamy about thirty-two thousand dollars and a position on the staff of General Clinton.

158. General Greene in the South; Battles of Cowpens, Guilford Court House, Hobkirks Hill, Eutaw Springs. — A third army was now raised in the South, with General Nathanael Greene[2] in command. Greene

[1] While riding along the wooded road near Sleepy Hollow, André was startled by three men who suddenly confronted him. These men were Paulding, Van Wart, and Williams. One of the party wore a Hessian coat and André, mistaking him for one of the British allies, asked him if he did not belong to the lower or British party. They answered yes, and André at once told them he was a British officer on important business. They then declared themselves to be Americans and André's heart sank. They ordered him to dismount, found the papers, and led him away to the nearest military post. André offered the patriots bribes of all kinds, but they scorned them. Congress voted them a medal and a pension of two hundred dollars a year for life.

[2] General Nathanael Greene was born in Rhode Island in 1742. His family were Quakers. During the Revolution he took part in the

immediately began a series of maneuvers that showed him to be the most skillful general in the American army except Washington. Knowing he had not a sufficient force to attack Cornwallis in the open field, he

resolved to wear him out. With the aid of Daniel Morgan, the sharpshooter, William Washington, Kosciuszko the brave Polish engineer, Henry Lee, Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and other equally brave officers, he began a series of the most brilliant military operations.

Morgan attacked Tarleton, who had been sent against him by Cornwallis at Cowpens (Jan. 17, 1781), and

battles of Trenton, Princeton, Brandywine, and Germantown. His wonderful campaign against Cornwallis in the South gave him a place in our military history second only to Washington. He died in 1786.

completely destroyed his forces, thus cutting off one third of Cornwallis' army. That general now started in pursuit of Greene, who desired to lead him further and further into a hostile country, far from his base of supplies. The chase was maintained for two hundred miles, when Greene suddenly turned around and fought Cornwallis at Guilford Court House (March 15, 1781). Greene was defeated, but Cornwallis' forces were so badly cut up that he turned and retreated. Greene now became the pursuer, but Cornwallis hurried on to join the British forces in Virginia. Greene, leaving Cornwallis to go his way, hastened southward to clear the British out of South Carolina. At Hobkirks Hill, two miles from Camden, he was attacked by Rawdon and defeated, but, as usual, fell back in such good order that Rawdon gave up Camden to save his army. Lee and Marion gained victories in many small contests, and Greene, pushing onward, met the British again at Eutaw Springs (Sept. 8, 1781), where he was defeated. The British now held themselves in Charleston under the protection of their fleet. In thirteen months Greene had practically recovered the Carolinas and Georgia from British rule.

159. Surrender of Cornwallis. — As we saw above, Cornwallis had abandoned the Carolinas and marched into Virginia, where a British force under the traitor Arnold and Phillips was plundering the country. Lafayette with three thousand men was at Richmond and Cornwallis resolved to capture him; but Lafayette was too clever and retreated skillfully with

his weak force. At length Cornwallis, desiring for the sake of his supplies to be near the sea, marched down the peninsula and with seven thousand men took position at Yorktown. Lafayette followed him with five thousand men. Now occurred the supreme moment of the long struggle. On Aug. 14, 1781, news reached Washington that the magnificent and powerful French fleet of twenty-eight war ships and six frigates, under Count de Grasse, had sailed from the West Indies for Chesapeake bay. Washington decided on the daring plan of marching four hundred miles to Virginia, joining Lafayette, and hemming in Cornwallis by land, while the French fleet cut off his retreat by sea. Pretending he was preparing to attack New York, Washington, with two thousand Americans and four thousand French soldiers under Rochambeau, who had joined him from Connecticut, left the Hudson and hurried southward.[1] Before the British knew what he was about, he had reached Philadelphia and, embarking at the head of Chesapeake bay, was approaching

[1] At this time Robert Morris again came to the aid of Washington with money. Rochambeau furnished twenty thousand dollars and from France arrived supplies and half a million dollars.

Yorktown. There he soon joined Lafayette. Sixteen thousand men were now encamped across the narrow peninsula to cut off Cornwallis. In the meantime the French fleet appeared. An English squadron followed from the West Indies and attacked the French fleet, but was repulsed. Cornwallis had no hope of escape left. From September till the middle of October shot and shell fell on the British camp from American and French guns. Day by day the lines were moved nearer and nearer to the British camp. Cornwallis, seeing the hopelessness of his position, surrendered on the 19th of October, 1781. His army of seven thousand two hundred and forty-seven men and eight hundred and forty-seven seamen threw down their arms. The allied troops were drawn up, Americans on the right, French on the left, with Washington and Rochambeau at their head.[1] Between these lines the captured army marched out while the band played an old English tune, "The World turned Upside Down."

160. Independence acknowledged; Treaty of Peace. — The news of Yorktown was received everywhere in the colonies with transports of delight. From the hilltops bonfires told the glad news, and fast riders hurried on to the most distant points with the cheerful tidings.[2]

[1] Cornwallis pretended to be ill, and sent his sword by General O'Hara. It was delivered to General Lincoln, who had surrendered at Charleston. A statue to Rochambeau was dedicated May 24, 1902, in Washington.

[2] The courier reached Philadelphia and the watchman cried out, "Past two o'clock and Cornwallis is taken!" There was no more sleep that night in the city. The old doorkeeper of Congress died of joy.

THE UNITED STATES

At the Close of the Revolution

Showing Western Land Claims of States
and the Boundaries fixed by Treaty of 1783
See also Table of Boundaries

SCALE OF MILES

0 100 200 300 400 500

92 Longitude 87 West 82 from 77 Greenwich

In Paris the houses were illuminated and a Te Deum was sung in Notre Dame. In England the news created the utmost consternation. When Lord North, the Prime Minister, heard of the surrender he threw up his arms and cried, "It is all over!" The king and his ministers tried in vain to continue the war.[1] Burke, Fox, and Pitt denounced these attempts with such success that the king at last agreed to the acknowledgment of independence, and the preliminary treaty was signed at Versailles, near Paris.

On April 19, 1783, the eighth anniversary of the battle of Lexington, the army was disbanded by Washington and the heroic patriots returned to their homes.[2]

By the final treaty of peace, signed Sept. 3, 1783, the United States embraced the country between the Atlantic and the Mississippi. Florida was ceded to Spain by Great Britain. Spain also claimed the

[1] In April, 1782, the Dutch Republic acknowledged the independence of the United States, being the second power in the world to do so, France of course being the first.

[2] After the surrender of Cornwallis Washington with his army returned to the Hudson river, where he established his headquarters at Newburg. The British troops left New York Nov. 25, 1783. Washington then went to New York to bid farewell to his devoted and beloved officers. The latter assembled at noon December 4, and Washington said, "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you and most devoutly wish your later days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable." He then journeyed on to Annapolis, where in the presence of Congress he gave up his command amid the tears and cordial good wishes of every patriot. He returned at once to his estate in Virginia a private citizen. He had expended sixty-five thousand dollars from his private fortune for the cause of independence, but for his services he declined to receive any reward.

territory at the mouth of the Mississippi. The area of the territory ceded to the United States was about eight hundred thousand square miles.

161. The Northwest Territory. — Scarcely was the war over when the various states claimed title to lands in the West. We have already seen that under the charters of many of the colonies the grants extended from sea to sea. A glance at the map (p. 174) will show that Massachusetts claimed a large part of the present states of Wisconsin and lower Michigan; Connecticut claimed a strip across Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and also a part of Pennsylvania; New York claimed the territory over which the Iroquois had ruled — practically all the Northwest; Virginia through her charter and George Rogers Clark's expedition claimed an enormous area. The states, led by New York and a little later by Virginia, which was the largest owner, at last generously gave up the territory to the national government, and it was organized as the Northwest Territory in 1787. This cession had most important results. It bound the newly born states together at a time when through dissensions the confederation was in danger of falling to pieces.[1]

The ordinance provided that no less than three nor more than five states might be formed from the

[1] We are accustomed to praise the lawgivers of antiquity — but I doubt whether one single law of any lawgiver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked and lasting character than the ordinance of 1787. — DANIEL WEBSTER.

The ordinance followed in many respects one which had been drafted in 1784 by Jefferson.

THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY was divided into the five following states (with Minnesota east of the Mississippi): 1. Ohio, admitted 1803; 2. Indiana, admitted 1816; 3. Illinois, admitted 1818; 4. Michigan, admitted 1837; 5. Wisconsin, admitted 1848. (See note on map of U. S. 1783.)

THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY, 1787

South Carolina ceded her western territory to the U. S. in 1787

territory;[1] that freedom of worship should be allowed; that trial by jury should be granted; that slavery should be forever prohibited, and that schools and the means of education should be forever encouraged. The provision against slavery was of the greatest importance, as it prevented that system from gaining a foothold in these great states.[2]

162. Shays' Rebellion; Defects of the Articles of Confederation. — The United States were now independent, but dangers beset them on every hand. They were heavily loaded with debt,[3] and the armies were still unpaid. The paper money was practically worthless, and everywhere there was great distress. In western Massachusetts the farmers were unable to pay their debts. Seeing their cattle seized for debt and their homesteads sold because of the heavy land taxation, they arose in rebellion under Daniel Shays, a captain

[1] The states that have been formed are Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. A part of a sixth state, Minnesota, was also made from this territory.

[2] The land south of the Ohio was claimed by Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. South Carolina resigned her claim in 1787. In the section of North Carolina west of the mountains an independent state was organized by the inhabitants. Finally, in 1790, North Carolina ceded Tennessee to the United States. In 1792 Kentucky was formed into a separate state with the permission of Virginia. Alabama and Mississippi in 1804 were ceded by Georgia to the national government.

[3] It has been estimated that the total debt contracted by the colonies in the war was one hundred and forty millions of dollars. France spent directly sixty millions of dollars in our service, besides very large sums elsewhere in her war with Great Britain. The debt of England was increased five hundred and seventy-five millions of dollars.

in the continental army. They surrounded the court-houses at Worcester and Springfield, but were finally dispersed. It was now felt that the Articles of Confederation were too weak to sustain a strong government. Under these Articles Congress had no power to enforce its laws; it could not levy taxes for any purpose; there was no freedom of trade among the states, one state passing tariff laws against another; trade was prostrate owing to the condition of the currency. Affairs reached such a fearful condition that finally Virginia issued an invitation to all the states to send delegates to a conference at Annapolis. As only five states responded, little was accomplished. Another invitation was thereupon sent to the colonies for a convention to be held in Philadelphia in May, 1787.

The Constitutional Convention

This convention was composed of fifty-five members.[1] George Washington was chosen as the presiding officer. After four months' discussion, a new constitution was adopted Sept. 17, 1787.

Before going into effect it had to receive the approval of nine states, which was secured June 21, 1788.

163. The New Constitution. — Under the Articles of Confederation there was one House of Congress, but

[1] The number of delegates chosen to the convention was sixty-five. Ten, however, did not arrive, while sixteen did not sign. The number of signers was thirty-nine.

no President and no developed system of federal courts. The great weakness of the national government lay in the fact that it could not enforce its decrees. The new Constitution provided for three departments:

1. The Legislative, to consist of a Congress made up of a Senate and a House of Representatives.

This department was created to make the laws.

2. The Executive, to consist of a President and officers to carry out these laws.

3. The Judicial, to consist of the federal or national courts to interpret the laws.

Signing the Constitution

While the legislature of each state could still enact laws for its state, the Constitution became the supreme law of the land, to be obeyed by the national and state governments and by the people. The new Constitution thus brought into existence a strong central

government. By establishing the presidency and the Supreme Court, by compelling freedom of trade among the states, and granting to Congress power to levy taxes, the Constitution laid broad and deep the foundations of our national life.[1]

In November, 1791, the first ten amendments were added. They safeguarded the rights of the people by securing the freedom of religion, speech, person, and property. (See digest of Constitution in Topical Analysis.)

SUMMARY

The American Revolution was begun because of the repeated attempt of the British Parliament to levy taxes on the colonists without their consent.

On July 4, 1776, independence was proclaimed by the colonists.

On Oct. 17, 1777, Burgoyne surrendered. France thereupon openly aided us with money, men, and a fleet.

On Oct. 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered.

In 1783 the king of England acknowledged our independence.

In 1789 the new Constitution went into effect, and we became one of the nations of the earth.

[1] There were many compromises necessary in the convention to secure the adoption of the Constitution. The first question arose over representation. The small states feared lest the large states would be able through greater representation to deny them their rights. It was finally arranged that in the House of Representatives the members should be elected according to population; in the Senate every state, large and small, should have two votes. This satisfied the smaller states. A second question arose on the basis of representation. Should slaves who could not vote be enumerated when the population was taken as the basis of representation? It was finally agreed that in the enumeration to determine the number of representatives to which a state was entitled, five slaves should count as three freemen. The third question touched the slave trade, and it was forbidden to prohibit this trade before 1808.

CHAPTER X

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE UNITED STATES

164. The Three Great Geographical Regions. — The United States consists of three great geographical regions: the Atlantic slope, the Central plain, and the Western highland.

The Atlantic slope extends from the Atlantic ocean to the crest of the Appalachian mountains. Good harbors are numerous; many rivers furnish abundant water power; in the Middle and Southern States the bays and rivers afford water ways to the interior. The settlement of this slope proceeded very slowly and at the time of the Revolution it was under the rule of Great Britain.

The Central plain comprises the territory from the crest of the Appalachians westward to the crest of the Rockies, — an area of wondrous fertility, traversed by the rivers of the great Mississippi system. Intrepid French explorers and missionaries discovered most of this region and over the greater part of it waved the flag of France until the downfall of French power in America.

The Western highland comprises the territory from the Rocky mountains westward to the Pacific.

165. The Effect of Physical Features on the Settlement of the Country. — The English made their earliest settlements along the Atlantic seaboard. Forests and mountains and tribes of hostile Indians tended to prevent

them from moving westward to the great Central plain.[1] This compact grouping of the colonies led to a well-ordered system of government and a harmony of ideas which at the proper time resulted in securing independence from Great Britain.

Through the passes of the Appalachians and along the water way of the Ohio a great westward movement began soon after the war of independence. Emigrants from Europe seeking homes on the vast Central plain swelled the number of the colonists. Cities were built, governments were organized, and states were formed until the entire Mississippi basin became the scene of a prosperous civilization.

The Western highland was less fertile, not having sufficient rainfall except in certain parts of the Pacific coast, but the discovery of gold, silver, and other metals caused a tide of immigration to this region.

166. The Resources of the United States. — The United States is wonderfully endowed with all the physical requirements of a great civilization. Thus, by means of the water power of the East, manufacturing was begun and this was later developed by protective laws; the fields of the South produce an abundance of cotton, sugar, and rice; in the great upper Mississippi basin grow wheat and corn, more than enough for the entire nation; coal, iron, and other valuable minerals

[1] In fact, George III in 1763 drew a line around the sources of the rivers which flow into the Atlantic. This was the so-called "proclamation line." The country west of this line was set apart for the Indians, and the colonists for the time were forbidden to settle there.

abound; the Hudson river, the Erie canal, and the Great Lakes form a continuous water route from New York to the heart of the country, while the Mississippi and its tributaries furnish a water way for thousands of miles; railroads in every direction overcome any natural obstacles that would impede the pathways of commerce.

Relief Map of the United States

Except Alaska and the tropical possessions, the United States has a temperate climate,[1] — the climate of the countries that lead the world's progress. The rainfall, except on parts of the Western plains and highland, is abundant.

The products of the farms, forests, and mines; the deep water ways of the bays, rivers, and lakes; the

[1] The climate of the United States is in its general features like that of the European countries from which our immigrants have come.

excellent water power of the streams, have helped to make the United States the richest and most progressive nation of the world.

With settlers drawn from every nation of Europe, the United States enjoyed during the nineteenth century the most wonderful progress recorded in the pages of history.

CHAPTER XI

THE PERIOD OF UNION

Washington's Administration, 1789–1797

167. The Inauguration; Political Parties. — George Washington[1] was unanimously elected first President of the United States and John Adams was chosen Vice President. Washington's journey from his home in Virginia to New York was a triumphal progress. Everywhere the people with glad acclaim, with banners, music, and flowers welcomed him. He was inaugurated April 30, 1789, on the balcony of the Federal Building, which occupied the present site of the Subtreasury on Wall Street in New York City.[2]

Washington belonged to no political party. Two parties had now arisen in the country, however, — the Federalist and the Republican.[3] The Federalists, led

[1] George Washington was born, of English descent, in Westmoreland County, Virginia, Feb. 22, 1732. In his early life he was a surveyor and at nineteen was appointed major by Governor Dinwiddie. From that time he became the leading figure in our national life. He died Dec. 14, 1799, loved and respected by the entire nation.

[2] Washington's first cabinet consisted of Jefferson, secretary of state; Hamilton, secretary of the treasury; Knox, secretary of war; and Randolph, attorney-general. In this cabinet were men of entirely different political beliefs. Hamilton was a strong Federalist while Jefferson was an equally strong Republican, as the anti-Federalists were now called. From these Republicans descended the present Democratic party.

[3] This is not the Republican party of the present day.

by Hamilton, believed in a strong central government; the Republicans, with Jefferson as their leader, would give the greatest possible power to the individual states.

168. Payment of the Debts, 1790. — The first great achievement of Washington's administration was the arrangement for the payment of the public debt. On account of the extraordinary expenses of the war, vast sums had been expended by the Continental Congress, and also by the various states. To foreign countries, especially France, Spain, and Holland, we owed more than eleven millions of dollars. The home debt was about forty millions of dollars, while the states had contracted obligations to the amount of nearly twenty-two millions of dollars.

Alexander Hamilton

Hamilton proposed that the United States should pay off all the indebtedness. There was no objection to the payment of the foreign and domestic debts. There was, however, the strongest opposition to the payment of the state debts by the federal government. It was maintained by many that the states should pay off their own debts, Congress having no authority to do so. The measure became a law finally

through the efforts of Hamilton,[1] who made a compromise with Jefferson.[2]

The national revenue was now largely increased by a tariff laid on imports; that is, a tax or duty was placed on foreign goods arriving at our ports.[3]

A little later a tax was placed on whisky and other liquors. Hamilton also proposed the establishment of a national bank to act as financial agent of the government. After considerable opposition, the bank was founded (1791) at Philadelphia. Provision was also made for a mint with the system of decimal currency which had been proposed by Jefferson.

169. The Appointment of Bishop Carroll. — Until 1783 the Catholic Church in America had been subject to the Vicar Apostolic of London. Steps were now taken to make the church in America a distinct body from that of England by the appointment of a Bishop. In 1789 the first Episcopal See in America was erected in Baltimore, and Reverend John Carroll[4] was consecrated

[1] Daniel Webster, in recognition of Hamilton's great work in establishing the national credit, said, "He touched the dead corpse of public credit and it sprang upon its feet."

[2] The Republicans, being largely Southerners, desired the capital to be built on the shores of the Potomac; the Federalists desired it to be built on the Delaware. By the compromise, the Federalists agreed that Philadelphia should be the seat of government for ten years. After that period the permanent capital would be on the Potomac. The Republicans thereupon voted for the payment of the debts.

[3] In 1790 the first census of the people was taken. It showed a population of 3,929,827.

[4] Most Reverend John Carroll was born in Maryland in 1735 and educated for the most part abroad. At the age of eighteen he entered the Society of Jesus. In 1773, on the suppression of the order, he went

the first Bishop. He founded Georgetown College in 1791, which was transferred fourteen years later to the Society of Jesus.

170. Admission of New States; Battle of the Maumee. — Acts were passed by Congress, admitting to the Union the new states of Vermont (1791) and Kentucky (1792).[1] Four years later Tennessee[2] was admitted. The westward movement of the population aroused the enmity of the Indians, already incited by the English against us. Several expeditions were sent against them.[3] At length "Mad Anthony" Wayne of Stony Point fame met them at the Maumee river, near the present city of Toledo. The savages were so

to England. At the outbreak of the Revolution he came to America to aid his native land in its struggle for freedom. He was a member of the embassy sent by Congress to Canada in 1776. In 1784 he was appointed Vicar Apostolic of the United States. Five years later he was consecrated Bishop, and in 1808 was named Archbishop with four suffragan dioceses: Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and Bardstown (Kentucky).

His saintly life and intense patriotism endeared him to the fathers of the republic, especially to Franklin and Washington, with whom he enjoyed an intimate friendship.

[1] Vermont was formed from disputed territory. It was claimed under royal grants by both New York and New Hampshire. It was the first state to place in its constitution the prohibition of slavery within its borders.

Kentucky was formed from territory that belonged to Virginia. It had been settled by the famous hunter, Daniel Boone, who came here with his brave companions from Tennessee.

[2] Tennessee was formed from territory ceded by North Carolina.

[3] The first army under General Harmer was surprised and defeated. General St. Clair was then sent against the Indians. Heedless of Washington's advice to guard against a surprise, he was led into an ambush and his army destroyed (1791).

completely defeated that they agreed to leave Ohio and settle further west. The victory opened the Northwest to peaceful settlement.

171. Settlements on the Ohio; Prince Gallitzin. — A steady stream of pioneers now poured into the land from beyond the Alleghenies. Towns were at once founded along the Ohio, the earliest among them being Marietta (1788) and Cincinnati (1790).[1]

Only seven years after Wayne's treaty with the Indians, so great had been the flood of settlers, Ohio asked for admission to the Union.

At this time a Russian nobleman, Prince Gallitzin,[2] was ordained to the priesthood and began his missionary labors in the wilds of Pennsylvania and Maryland. He founded (1799) the settlement of Loretto in western Pennsylvania and ministered throughout that unbroken country.

172. The Whisky Rebellion. — The farmers in western Pennsylvania resented the tax which had been placed on whisky and refused to pay it. They drove away the officers sent to collect the revenue and defied the government. Washington thereupon called out the militia, and fifteen thousand troops moved to the

[1] Cincinnati received its name from the society formed by the officers of the Revolution at the close of that war. Cincinnatus was a Roman noble who was called from the plow to serve his country and returned to the plow after the danger was over.

Marietta was named after Marie Antoinette, the unfortunate queen of France.

[2] On Sept. 29, 1899, a statue was erected to Gallitzin's memory at Loretto, Pennsylvania.

scene of the riots. As soon as the troops appeared the rioters laid down their arms. The lesson of this

Eli Whitney and the Cotton Gin

rebellion was a valuable one. The people everywhere saw that the acts of Congress must be obeyed.

173. The Cotton Gin, 1793. — In the year 1793 Eli Whitney of Massachusetts, who was on a visit to the

South, conceived the idea of a machine for separating cotton and its seeds. It was, up to this time, a day's work for a man to clean four pounds of cotton. Hence cotton cloth was very expensive. Whitney's gin from the first enabled a man to clean fifty pounds in one day, and later improvements greatly increased its capacity. As a result of this invention cotton growing became at once one of the leading industries of the country, the exports reaching enormous figures within five years.[1] Immense cotton mills were erected in the North to weave cotton into cloth. This invention had an unexpected result, however. It rendered slave labor very profitable and enlisted the sympathy of northern mill owners in maintaining the slave system in the South. It therefore not only helped to fasten slavery on the country, but prevented its peaceful abolition.

174. "Citizen" Genêt.—In 1789 the Revolution broke out in France. In 1793 the king and queen were beheaded, and war was declared with England.

Edmond C. Genêt,[2] called "Citizen" Genêt, was sent as minister from France to secure the coöperation of

[1] In 1790 no cotton was exported from the United States. Whitney's cotton gin was introduced in 1793. The next year about one and a half millions of pounds were exported and in 1795 about five and a quarter millions; in 1860 the quantity had reached two thousand millions of pounds. — DRAPER.

To-day the export of cotton reaches the enormous amount of over three billions of pounds. The invention of the gin came at the very time when rice and indigo had fallen to so low a price that they scarcely repaid the expense of cultivation.

[2] Genêt (Zhe-nay').

the United States and to detach the Floridas and Louisiana from Spain. Genêt arrived at Charleston, South Carolina, in 1793.

Without presenting himself to the government, he began to fit out privateers at once against English commerce. Washington believed the United States was not in a position to interfere in European quarrels, even if it wished to do so. He therefore issued a proclamation of neutrality. This enraged the Republicans. Believing that France had been our steadfast friend, while England had always been hostile to us, they called meetings to express their sympathy with France. Genêt acted with great imprudence and endeavored to stir up the people against the government. His recall was therefore requested.

175. Jay's Treaty. — To make matters worse at this time, England not only refused to give up the western posts held by her soldiers, but seized our ships and carried off our seamen on the pretense that many British sailors were enlisted in our navy. To remedy this intolerable state of affairs, Washington sent John Jay to England to negotiate a treaty. By this treaty the king agreed to withdraw his troops from the posts they still occupied — Detroit, Oswego, Mackinaw, — to pay for damages to our ships, and to allow us to trade with the British West Indies provided the United States would not export the tropical products, molasses, sugar, coffee, cocoa, or cotton, to any part of the world. Jay consented to this clause, not realizing the future of cotton in the United States.

The king refused, however, to give up the impressment of seamen.

The treaty was most unpopular everywhere. Jay was hung in effigy. Washington was abused, and Hamilton was stoned while endeavoring to justify it. With the exception of the West India clause, however, it was ratified by the Senate (1795). Practically the only good result of the treaty was the postponement of war with England for twenty years, during which time our population doubled and we were better able to enforce our rights.

176. Treaties with Spain and Algiers. — An important treaty was made in 1795 with Spain. The Mississippi was thereby opened to trade, and we were allowed to use New Orleans as a port of deposit for three years.

The same year a treaty was signed with Algiers. To release the American seamen held as captives by these pirates, eighty thousand dollars were paid and an annual tribute of twenty-three thousand dollars was promised to the rulers of Algiers for the protection of American shipping.

177. Washington's Farewell Address. — As his second term[1] of office was closing, Washington declined election for a third time and issued a farewell address. In this noble document he asked his fellow-citizens to hold aloof from permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world, but to preserve "harmony and a liberal intercourse with all nations." He warned the country against the dangers of party spirit and advised

[1] Washington had been reëlected in 1792.

respect for law, for the national credit, for public and private virtue, for religion and morality. "Of all the dispositions and habits," said Washington, "which lead to political prosperity, Religion and Morality are indispensable supports."

Washington and Lafayette at Mount Vernon

He left the presidency to return to his beautiful home at Mount Vernon. On leaving the high office Washington could indeed look with pride on the advance of his country during the eight years of his administration. The Constitution was firmly established; the laws were well administered; the public credit was secure; the revenues were increasing daily, and we were extending our commerce on all sides.

On returning to private life Washington was hailed by all the people with the proudest title a patriot may enjoy, "The Father of his Country."

SUMMARY

In 1789 George Washington was inaugurated first President of the United States. He was reëlected in 1792.

The payment of the public debt was provided for and our credit established at home and abroad.

By a proclamation of neutrality Washington preserved the peace of the United States in the war between France and England.

Three new states were added to the Union, and emigration began to the Ohio valley.

A new treaty, made by John Jay with England, was confirmed by the Senate.

Whitney invented the cotton gin, which revolutionized the cotton industry and fastened slavery on the country.

John Adams' Administration, 1797–1801

178. Election of Adams; Trouble with France; X, Y, Z Papers. — The Federalists nominated John Adams for President; the Republicans chose Thomas Jefferson. Adams received seventy-one votes and was elected President, while Jefferson had sixty-eight votes and was elected Vice President.[1] On March 4, 1797, Adams was inaugurated.[2]

[1] As the Constitution then provided, the majority of votes elected the President and the next greatest number of votes elected the Vice President. This provision has since been changed.

[2] John Adams was of English descent and was born in Braintree, Massachusetts, Oct. 19, 1735. He was elected a member of the First and Second Continental Congresses and aided materially in the adoption of the Declaration of Independence by Congress. After our government was established, he worked with great perseverance and success to secure the good will of Europe towards our new republic and was appointed minister to Great Britain. He died July 4, 1826, with the words, "Thomas Jefferson still survives." But he was mistaken, for that illustrious statesman had passed away a few hours before.

The Jay treaty had aroused the indignation of the French government, which sent its war vessels to capture our merchantmen. It also refused to receive our minister, Charles C. Pinckney. To settle our difficulties, President Adams sent John Marshall and Elbridge Gerry to join Pinckney, who was still in France.

The French government did not receive them, but envoys from Talleyrand, minister of foreign affairs, promised to stop these attacks on our shipping if the commissioners would give fifty thousand dollars to each director, assist France with money, and disavow some expressions of President Adams towards the French government.

This proposal was sent to Adams, who submitted it to Congress. Instead of the names of the agents, the letters X, Y, Z were used. Hence the documents were called the "X, Y, Z" papers.

This infamous proposal caused a burst of indignation throughout the land, and we were on the brink of war with France. The immortal words of Pinckney were on every lip, "Millions for defense but not one cent for tribute."

179. Preparations for War. — In his message to Congress Adams said, "I will never send another minister to France without assurance that he will be received, respected, and honored as the representative of a great, free, peaceful, and independent nation." The treaties with France were suspended; a provisional army was raised, and Washington was made

commander in chief. A navy department was created, and our vessels, fitted out for war, sailed to the French West Indies to destroy French commerce. The *Constellation*, under Captain Truxtun, captured the French frigate *Insurgente*. So vigorous a warfare did our little navy wage that the French Directory requested us to send another commission. Adams, anxious to avoid war, sent the commission which made a treaty with Napoleon in 1800.

180. Alien and Sedition Laws; Action of Virginia and Kentucky. — The Federalists, aided by the excitement of the times and by the feeling against France, passed two dangerous and unwise measures, — the Alien and Sedition Laws. By the Alien Law the President had for two years the power to expel any foreigner from the country. The Sedition Law provided that those who interfered with an act of Congress, or abused the President, Congress, or any member of the government, could be fined and imprisoned. This bill was to be in force for three years. The Republicans strongly denounced these bills, especially the Sedition Act. Jefferson wrote a series of resolutions which were adopted by the Kentucky legislature[1] (1798), and Madison did the same for the Virginia legislature. These resolutions protested that the Alien and Sedition Laws were unconstitutional, and that it was the duty of the states to interpose. In the Kentucky resolutions of 1799 nullification was declared to be

[1] Joseph Hopkinson wrote (1798) his patriotic song "Hail Columbia." It was sung for the first time in honor of President Adams in Philadelphia.

the rightful remedy. This doctrine was destined later to bear fruit and eventually to end in civil war.

181. Death of Washington; the New Capital. — On Dec. 14, 1799, George Washington died, after a brief illness, at his home at Mount Vernon. The entire nation was bowed with grief at the death of him who had been "first in war, first in peace and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

Napoleon ordered all the flags of France to be draped in black for ten days.

John Adams had been inaugurated in Philadelphia. During his administration the new capital on the banks of the Potomac was occupied by Congress (November, 1800). To the territory was given the name District of Columbia. It was a tract of land ten miles square, given by Maryland and Virginia.[1] The new city was named Washington, and was laid out on a spacious scale by a French engineer, Major l'Enfant.

Washington himself when President had "entered with unwonted ardor into the plans projected for developing the new capital. Not only did he picture the city which bore his name as an instructor of the coming youth in lessons of lofty patriotism, but he prophesied for it national greatness."

The corner stone of the Capitol was laid Sept. 18, 1793. In October, 1800, the government offices were transferred from Philadelphia to Washington.[2]

[1] Virginia's share, which was south of the Potomac, was returned to her in 1846.

[2] A second census was taken this year (1800), which showed that the United States contained 5,305,937 inhabitants.

182. Election of Jefferson.— At the close of Adams' administration the Federalist party was rent by internal quarrels and weakened in the nation by the passage of the Alien and Sedition Laws. Hamilton, though a Federalist, used all his great ability to defeat Adams for reëlection. Thomas Jefferson was again nominated by the Republicans for President and Aaron Burr for Vice President. The vote, however, was a tie, Jefferson and Burr each receiving seventy-three votes. The House of Representatives then elected Jefferson by one vote over Burr, who became Vice President.

This difficulty brought about a desire for a change in the method of electing a President. The Twelfth Amendment was passed (1804), and provided that the electors should cast a ballot for President and a separate ballot for Vice President.

One of the crowning acts of Adams' administration was the appointment, Dec. 31, 1800, of John Marshall as chief justice of the Supreme Court. For thirty-four years he held this dignified office. It is scarcely an exaggeration to call him, as an eminent American jurist had done, "a second maker of the Constitution."

SUMMARY

At the outset of Adams' administration trouble with France aroused the country. The X, Y, Z negotiations brought us to the verge of war with France.

The Alien and Sedition Laws were passed and were generally condemned.

Washington died at his home at Mount Vernon.

The capital was moved to the District of Columbia.

Jefferson's Administration, 1801–1809

183. The Republican Party in Power. — On entering the presidential office Jefferson[1] showed a democratic rather than an aristocratic spirit. On the morning of his inauguration he walked to the Capitol surrounded by a few friends. He desired the cordial friendship of all the people. The dress of former days was largely changed; he discarded to a great extent the wigs, short breeches, silk stockings, and buckled shoes; his motto was, "A vote for every man, whether he owns property or not." He represented the new ideas of the times and was deservedly popular.

The Republicans began many reforms. They cut down the army and the navy, repealed many objectionable laws, and conducted the government on lines of the strictest economy, the entire expense being less than four million dollars a year.

184. War on the African Pirates; Ohio admitted, 1802. — For many years the Barbary States on the north coast of Africa — Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli — had made a trade of piracy. Practically all the nations of Europe paid them immense sums of money to leave their vessels alone. These pirates had given

[1] Thomas Jefferson was born at Shadwell, Virginia, April 12, 1743. He was of Welsh and English descent. With brilliant intellectual gifts he quickly rose to a leading position in national affairs. He was the author of the Declaration of Independence and of our decimal system of coinage. He drafted the Religious Toleration Law of Virginia, and secured the abolition of the law of primogeniture, which gave all the landed property to the eldest son according to the English law. He died July 4, 1826.

us a great deal of trouble by capturing our shipping and imprisoning our sailors. We had paid them a million dollars in tribute to allow our vessels to sail the Mediterranean, but they constantly demanded more, until in 1801 the ruler of Tripoli declared war against us.[1] In 1803 a fleet was sent against these pirates. So vigorously did our brave sailors wage the war that the ruler of Tripoli was glad to make peace with us in 1805.

Fort Washington (site of Cincinnati)

In 1802 Ohio was admitted to the Union, the first state formed from the Northwest Territory. It had at

[1] The British government aided the pirates, and a British subject, named Lisle, was admiral of the Tripolitan fleet when war was declared against us. On Oct. 31, 1803, while the frigate *Philadelphia* of our squadron was chasing a pirate in the harbor of Tripoli, she ran aground and was captured with three hundred and fifteen men, including Commander Bainbridge. Not long afterwards Stephen Decatur, in a small boat, stole into the harbor, boarded the *Philadelphia*, set her on fire, and escaped without the loss of a man. Lord Nelson said of this feat, "It was the most bold and daring act of the age."

this time only forty-five thousand inhabitants. To the settlement around Fort Washington was given the name of Cincinnati.

185. The Louisiana Purchase, 1803. — The greatest event of Jefferson's administration was the purchase of Louisiana, the vast territory extending from the Mississippi river to the Rocky mountains, and from the gulf of Mexico to British America.

In 1763 Spain received this territory from France and held it for thirty-seven years. In 1800 Spain ceded it back to France. As the great West relied upon the Mississippi to carry its products to the sea, Jefferson feared the establishment of a strong power like France at the mouth of the Mississippi. Speaking of New Orleans, he said, "There is one spot the possessor of which is our natural and habitual enemy." Jefferson sent an envoy to France to buy New Orleans and that part of Louisiana east of the Mississippi.[1] Napoleon had planned the reestablishment of a colonial domain for France; but, having failed in recovering control of the French colony of Santo Domingo, where the slaves had revolted, he lost his interest in this colonial project and sold Louisiana to the United States for fifteen millions of dollars.[2] The acquisition of Louisiana

[1] Jefferson had grave doubts as to his right under the Constitution to buy territory. He took advantage, however, of his doubts and was sustained by the country.

[2] Although Spain had ceded Louisiana to France in 1800, it had never been actually given up, and the flag of Spain still floated over the territory. On Nov. 30, 1803, therefore, the Spanish representative delivered up the keys of New Orleans to the representative of France

BRITISH POSSESSIONS
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
OREGON
1. By Discovery, 1792.
2. By Exploration, 1805-6.
3. By Settlement, 1811.
4. By Treaty with Spain, 1819.
5. By Treaty with Great Britain, 1846.
Line of 1818
LOUISIANA
Ceded by France to Spain
France to Spain
NORTH WEST TERRITORY
SOUTH WEST TERRITORY
Claimed by Spain
New Orleans
GULF OF MEXICO
Longitude West 90° from Greenwich
THE UNITED STATES in 1792
The Mississippi was then the western boundary of the United States, but we had a claim on the Oregon country. (See above). England, Spain and Russia also claimed Oregon.
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400 500

doubled our national domain. Napoleon said, on signing the treaty, "This accession of territory establishes forever the power of the United States and gives to England a maritime rival destined to humble her pride." [1]

186. The Exploration of Lewis and Clark; the Oregon Country. — As nothing was accurately known of this vast territory, Jefferson sent an expedition under Lewis and Clark to explore it. Leaving St. Louis (May 14, 1804) with forty-five men, they pushed their boats up the Missouri halfway to its headwaters, where they were compelled to go into winter quarters for five months. In the spring (April, 1805) they resumed their journey up the river and after twenty days reached the Yellowstone. Late in May they saw the snowy peaks of the Rocky mountains on the distant horizon. After endless toils they crossed the mountains and embarked on the Columbia. They reached the mouth of the Columbia (November, 1805) after a journey of four thousand miles and saw the beautiful Pacific stretching before them On their return to St. Louis they published an account of their wonderful journey.

Captain Robert Gray of Boston in his vessel the *Columbia*, while trading with the Indians of the Pacific

and from the balcony of the old Cabildo absolved the people from their allegiance to Spain. The Spanish flag was lowered and that of France raised. Twenty days later the French representative on the same spot delivered the keys to the American governor. The French tricolor was lowered as the stars and stripes rose slowly over our new possessions.

[1] From this territory have since been formed the states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Indian Territory, Oklahoma, a large part of the states of Minnesota and Colorado, and parts of Wyoming and Montana.

coast (1792), had discovered the broad river to which he gave the name of his vessel, — the Columbia. He claimed all the country drained by its waters for the United States. This gave us our first title to Oregon. The expedition of Lewis and Clark gave us a second title.

The report of this expedition stirred up the fur traders, and John Jacob Astor founded the Pacific Fur Company, with a line of trading posts extending from the Missouri to the Columbia. Near the mouth of the latter river Astoria was founded (1811). This was a third title to the Oregon country.[1]

187. Death of Hamilton; Aaron Burr. — The whole country was shocked at this time to hear that the Vice President, Aaron Burr, had killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel (July 11, 1804). The grief of the country at the loss of the brilliant statesman was shown everywhere by marks of profound sympathy. Burr's political career was ended; he formed a project for an attack on Mexico, and he may have intended to separate Louisiana from the United States. On his way to New Orleans he was arrested for treason. He was not, however, convicted, and after a residence of some years in Europe he returned to New York, where he finished his life in obscurity.

[1] Zebulon M. Pike was also sent in 1806 with an expedition to explore the country of the great West. He discovered Pikes Peak, but suffered terrible hardships and finally fell into the hands of the Spaniards. He was taken as a prisoner to Santa Fe, but was later released and returned home through Mexico and Texas. Pike was killed in an attack on Toronto (April 22, 1813).

188. War between France and England; Right of Search. — War broke out in May, 1803, between England and France. By the Berlin and Milan decrees,[1] Napoleon forbade the ships of any neutral nation to enter British ports. England in turn issued decrees, called "Orders in Council," forbidding neutral vessels to enter the ports of France or of any nation in league with France. This exposed our shipping to capture by both nations. England went still further. Relying on her large navy, she maintained the right to stop and search American vessels and to take from them any sailors she decided to be Englishmen. Her outrages reached their climax when the British frigate *Leopard* fired, in 1807, upon the American frigate *Chesapeake* and killed and wounded twenty men. The *Chesapeake*, being unprepared for action, surrendered and the English took off four seamen, one of whom they hanged as a deserter.[2]

189. Embargo and Non-Intercourse. — Congress now passed an act forbidding American vessels to leave our shores for foreign ports.[3] This was called an "embargo" and was passed to stop trade with England and France. It was thought this would cause great distress in Europe and compel England and France to respect our rights.

[1] They were so called from the cities from which they were issued.

[2] So great was the popular indignation at this outrage that Jefferson declared, "Never since the battle of Lexington have I seen this country in such a state of exasperation as at present."

[3] Coasting vessels were required to give a bond that their cargoes would be landed in a United States port before they were allowed to leave the harbor.

The embargo was not successful. If it injured British commerce, it injured our own much more. It caused great suffering and was highly unpopular in the eastern states. The opposition to the embargo in New England was so great that prominent men in that section began to discuss secession from the Union. The law was repealed in 1809. The Non-Intercourse Act was now passed. By this act all commerce with Great Britain and France and their colonies was illegal. Commerce was permitted, however, with all countries not under France and England. There was at once an active trade opened with Spain and Portugal.

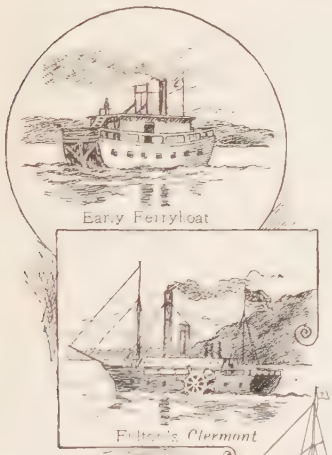
Robert Fulton

An important result of these acts was to turn the attention of American merchants from commerce to manufacturing, a change destined to bring about wonderful results in our national position and wealth.

190. The First Steamboat. — As early as 1785 John Fitch had built a steamboat in Philadelphia. In the spring of 1807 the *Clermont*, a paddle-wheel steamer of twenty tons, designed by Robert Fulton,[1] was launched

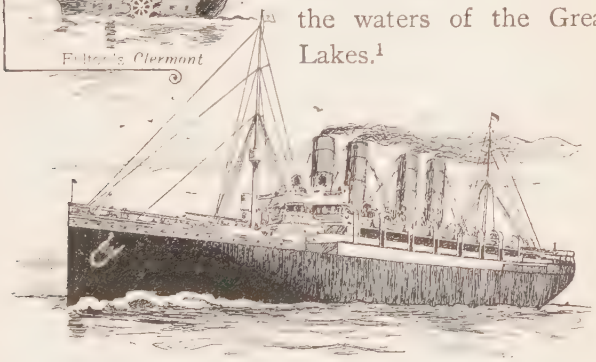
[1] Robert Fulton was born in Pennsylvania in 1765, of Irish descent. Besides the steamboat he invented the torpedo and designed steam ferry-boats. He died in 1815.

on the Hudson at New York. It was one hundred and thirty-three feet long and eighteen feet wide. It made a successful trip to Albany — one hundred and fifty miles — in thirty-two hours, the first long voyage ever made by a steamboat. This wonderful feat opened the way for steam navigation on our lakes and rivers. Three years later a boat was built at Pittsburg to run on the Ohio and the Mississippi, and in 1818 another was speeding over the waters of the Great Lakes.[1]



Early Ferryboat

Fulton's *Clermont*



Modern Steamship

191. Importation of Slaves forbidden; Election of Madison. — The Constitution denied Congress the power to

[1] The Atlantic was first crossed by a steamship in 1819. It was the *Savannah*, of three hundred and eighty tons. She crossed from Savannah, Georgia, to Liverpool in twenty-five days.

prohibit the importation of slaves before 1808. President Jefferson,[1] in a message to Congress, recommended the passage of a law prohibiting the importation of slaves. This law was enacted in 1808. Only five dissenting votes were recorded in the Senate. Thus the first step toward abolishing slavery was taken.

Although the legislatures of eight states invited Jefferson to accept the presidency for the third term,[2] he refused, and James Madison was easily elected fourth President of the United States. George[3] Clinton was elected Vice President. The Federalist candidate was Charles C. Pinckney.

SUMMARY

During Jefferson's presidency (1801–1809) Louisiana was purchased from France.

The expedition of Lewis and Clark explored the Louisiana territory and the great West to the Pacific.

The pirates of northern Africa were punished and conquered.

The first steamboat was operated by Robert Fulton.

The Embargo and Non-Intercourse Acts were passed.

The importation of slaves was forbidden.

[1] Jefferson believed in the gradual abolition of slavery. In 1821 he wrote, "Nothing is more certainly written in the book of fate than that these people are to be free."

[2] Jefferson had been easily reëlected in 1804, receiving one hundred and sixty-two electoral votes, while Charles C. Pinckney, the Federalist candidate, received only fourteen.

[3] Charles Clinton was born in Longford, Ireland, where he chartered a ship and led a colony of seventy persons in 1729 to New York state. He had two sons, George and James. George Clinton became the first governor of New York, and later Vice President under Jefferson and again under Madison. James Clinton was the father of De Witt Clinton, the famous governor of New York who built the Erie canal.

James Madison's Administration,[1] 1809–1817

192. Trouble with Great Britain and France. — The English maintained the principle, "Once an Englishman always an Englishman." The United States maintained the principle, then novel but now generally accepted, that a man may change his allegiance and become a citizen of another country. To recruit her navy, therefore, England sent war ships up and down our coast, overhauling our vessels and taking off seamen whom she claimed to be her subjects. Most of these were probably English born, although frequently they were native American citizens. In eight years almost six thousand sailors had been taken from our vessels, and no less than nine hundred vessels searched.

Great Britain and France were still at war with each other, and the Non-Intercourse Act forbade trade with either of them. Soon after Madison's inauguration the British minister in Washington declared that Great Britain would withdraw her "Orders in Council." The Non-Intercourse Act was thereupon suspended. At once hundreds of vessels loaded with goods sailed to sea. The British government, however, did not approve of the acts of her minister and the Non-Intercourse Act again went into effect. In 1810 Congress declared that

[1] James Madison was born in Virginia, March 16, 1751. He was admitted to the bar and later elected a member of the Continental Congress. Madison's state papers are among the ablest productions of American statesmanship. The first draft of the Constitution and the first ten amendments embodied his ideas, and hence he has been called "The Father of the Constitution." He died June 28, 1836.

if either France or Great Britain would revoke the decrees against our shipping, the Non-Intercourse Act would be put in force against the country that would not revoke; Napoleon announced immediately that he would recall the decrees, and Great Britain promised to do the same after Napoleon had acted. Neither France nor England did as they had promised, however, and our difficulties, especially with Great Britain, increased daily.

193. The President and the Little Belt; Battle of Tippecanoe; Declaration of War. — In May, 1811, the *Guerrière*[1] stopped an American vessel near New York harbor and took off an American sailor. The frigate *President* was sent at once in search of the *Guerrière*, but met instead the British twenty-two-gun ship, *Little Belt*.

The *President* at once opened fire and easily captured the British vessel.

In the meantime the Indians in the Northwest, incited by the English, had taken to the warpath against the American settlers. The Shawnee chief, Tecumseh, had united in a strong confederacy many of the tribes and had ravaged the frontiers. General Harrison, the governor of Indiana Territory, was sent against them. The Indians attempted to overwhelm him by a night attack, but he defeated them (Nov. 7, 1811) with great slaughter at Tippecanoe in western Indiana. Tecumseh fled to the English army.

[1] *Guerrière* (Ghĕ-ree-air') means "warrior."

Affairs had now reached the point where war was inevitable,[1] and on June 18, 1812, hostilities were declared against Great Britain.[2]

194. Hull's Surrender; Battle of Queenstown Heights. — The objective point in the campaign was the capture of Canada.[3] Three armies were raised for this purpose:

the first one, under Hull, was to march from Detroit; the second, under Van Rensselaer, was to cross the Niagara river and take Queenstown; the third, under Dearborn,

[1] So bitter was the feeling against England that in some of the states (New Jersey, Kentucky, Pennsylvania) it was forbidden by law to quote in any of the courts any decision of an English judge delivered after the Declaration of Independence.

[2] The causes of the war were: (1) impressment of American sailors; (2) violation of our rights of commerce; (3) blockade of our ports by English vessels; (4) urging the Indians to attack our frontier settlements. The cry of the campaign was "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights."

[3] It was thought the Canadians would throw off their allegiance to England and join the United States. In this our statesmen were sorely disappointed.

was to unite with the other two and capture Montreal and Quebec.

The plan was a signal failure. General Hull set out from Urbana, Ohio, on his arduous march through the unbroken forests to Detroit. When he reached there he learned that Mackinaw had fallen into the hands of the British.

He took his position at Detroit, where he was besieged by the British under General Brock and the Indians under Tecumseh. Hull was summoned to surrender.

Anxious, as he declared, to save the women and children from the scalping knives of the Indians, he did so without firing a gun.[1] Thus, not only Detroit but all of Michigan Territory passed to the British.

The second army, under General Van Rensselaer, crossed the Niagara river and attacking the British at Queenstown Heights (Oct. 13, 1812) drove them from their position. General Brock was killed. The American general, however, failed to receive reënforcements because the New York militia refused to leave that state, and his army was surrounded and captured.

195. The War on the Sea; the *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*; Other Naval Battles. — Though the army had completely failed in its plan to invade Canada, our little navy upheld gloriously the flag of the republic. In 1812 we had only seventeen seagoing vessels, carrying four hundred and forty-two guns and about five thousand

[1] Hull was tried for cowardice by court-martial and sentenced to be shot, but the President pardoned him for his distinguished services during the War of the Revolution.

men. England, "the mistress of the seas," at the same time had one thousand and forty-eight ships, carrying twenty-seven thousand eight hundred guns and one hundred and fifty thousand men. On the American coast alone England had one hundred and seven ships.

Despite such odds, our brave sailors went forth to victory. On Aug. 19, 1812, the *Constitution*, under Captain Hull, nephew of General Hull, met the British frigate *Guerrière* off the coast of Nova Scotia.[1] In an engagement lasting less than an hour the *Guerrière* was destroyed, her men being taken prisoners and carried to Boston. There the citizens feasted Captain Hull and his brave sailors in Faneuil Hall. From that time the *Constitution* was known as *Old Ironsides*. It has been said of this victory that "it raised the United States in one half hour to the rank of a first-class power."

During this year the British frigate *Macedonian* was captured by one of our vessels, the *United States;* the *Frolic* was captured by the *Wasp* in a Hatteras gale off the coast of North Carolina, but scarcely was the battle over when a British man-of-war hove in sight and captured the *Wasp* and her prize.[2]

196. The *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon;* the Privateers. — The British ship *Shannon*, learning that the American

[1] On seeing the *Constitution*, Captain Dacres of the *Guerrière* said to his crew: "There is a Yankee frigate; in forty-five minutes she is certainly ours. Take her in fifteen and I promise you four months' pay."

[2] At the end of his first term Madison was reëlected with one hundred and twenty-eight electoral votes. De Witt Clinton of New York, his opponent, received eighty-nine electoral votes.

frigate *Chesapeake* was in Boston harbor, sent a challenge to her to come out and fight. The challenge was accepted, and the *Chesapeake* under Captain Lawrence sailed to meet the *Shannon* (June 1, 1813).

The contest lasted only fifteen minutes and resulted in a complete victory for the English vessel. The *Chesapeake* was towed to Halifax. Lawrence died in the action. He was buried with military honors in Halifax, and later in Trinity churchyard in New York City.[1]

Privateers were commissioned by the President to prey on English commerce. In seven months over three hundred British vessels were captured. During the entire war over seventeen hundred ships were taken by our privateers.

197. Raisin River Massacre; Fort Meigs. — In the new plans for the invasion of Canada the army was organized in three divisions. It was intended that the first should retake Michigan Territory; the second, the Niagara district; the third, the lake Champlain valley. All three divisions were then to invade Canada. General Harrison, in charge of the western division, moved northward towards Detroit. A part of his forces under Winchester was defeated on the Raisin river (near the present site of the city of Monroe, Michigan) by the British and Indians. The British general, Proctor, did not adequately protect the American prisoners from the Indians, and some

[1] On his monument are these words: "Neither the fury of battle, the anguish of a mortal wound, nor the horrors of approaching death could subdue his gallant spirit. His dying words were, 'Don't give up the ship.'"

thirty of them were massacred. Henceforth the war cry of the Americans was, "Remember the river Raisin."

In the spring of 1813 Proctor, with the aid of Tecumseh, besieged General Harrison at Fort Meigs on the Maumee river. Two attacks were made without success; thereupon the British turned and attacked Fort Stephenson on the lower Sandusky. This fort was defended by one hundred and sixty men with a single six-pound gun. A young Kentuckian, twenty-one years old, Major Croghan,[1] was in command. The attack was an utter failure, and the enemy retreated. Michigan, however, was still in the hands of the British. These reverses led the Indians to lose faith in British prowess, and many promptly deserted.

Oliver Hazard Perry

198. Battle of Lake Erie. — Our little navy which had won so many victories at sea now achieved a most signal triumph on lake Erie.

On Sept. 10, 1813, Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry[2] with nine vessels, half of them built on the lake shore,

[1] Croghan was asked to surrender and thereby escape massacre at the hands of the Indians. His answer was, "The fort will be given up when there is not a man alive to defend it."

[2] Perry was born in Rhode Island of American and Irish parentage, his father having been born in America and his mother in Ireland.

attacked the British fleet. Perry's ship, the *Lawrence*,[1] was quickly riddled. Leaving her in a sinking condition, Perry transferred his flag amid a shower of bullets to the *Niagara*. The battle was a complete defeat for the British. Perry sent to General Harrison this message: "We have met the enemy and they are ours: two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." As we now controlled lake Erie the British were compelled to abandon Detroit, and the territory surrendered by Hull was recovered.

199. Battle with the Creeks; Harrison's Victory on the Thames. — The Creek Indians in the South now went on the warpath. They had been aroused by Tecumseh and supplied with arms by British agents. Fort Mimms, forty miles from Mobile, was attacked and all its occupants, five hundred men, women, and children, massacred. With troops from Georgia, Mississippi, and Tennessee, General Andrew Jackson marched against them. He attacked (March 27, 1814) the Indians at Horseshoe Bend, or

His brother was Commodore M. C. Perry, who induced the Japanese to open their ports to our commerce. For the victory of lake Erie Perry was made a captain and was voted a gold medal by Congress.

[1] Perry's vessel was named *Lawrence* after the hero of the *Chesapeake*. Over his vessel floated a flag with the words, "Don't give up the ship."

Tohopeka, on a branch of the Alabama river. The Indians were completely defeated and their power broken. Many fled into Spanish territory, and the United States took possession of their lands.

General Harrison took advantage of Perry's victory to invade Canada. On the banks of the Thames (Oct. 5, 1813) he routed the English forces under Proctor and Tecumseh. The latter was killed, and Proctor escaped by flight. By these victories of Perry and Harrison we controlled lake Erie, Michigan, and upper Canada. Ohio was freed from the danger of invasion, and the Indian confederacy was destroyed.

200. Battle of Lake Champlain. — The American army under General Brown crossed the Niagara river, captured Fort Erie, and defeated the English at Chippewa (July 5, 1814). Three weeks later the Americans attacked the strong position of the British at Lundys Lane (July 25) within sound of Niagara falls and carried the works. Three times the British

tried to retake the batteries, but were driven back with great loss.

The British now planned an expedition down lake Champlain, following the route of Burgoyne. Sir George Provost with a land force of fourteen thousand men marched southward to Plattsburg, while a naval force of seventeen vessels sailed down the lake. The British fleet, sweeping proudly around Cumberland Head, met (Sept. 11, 1814) the American squadron of fourteen vessels under Commodore McDonough.

The fight lasted two and one-half hours, when the whole British fleet surrendered. In the meantime the British land forces met General Macomb, who had taken a position on the banks of the Saranac. The British tried in vain to cross, the fire of the Americans sweeping their ranks at every point. At last, hearing of the disaster to the fleet, they retreated in such haste that the sick and wounded as well as large military stores were left in the hands of the Americans.

201. The Burning of Washington; Battle of New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815. — In the meantime, in retaliation for a raid into Canada during which private property was destroyed, Vice Admiral Cochrane gave orders to destroy and lay waste the coast towns. On Aug. 24, 1814, General Ross entered Washington and burned the Capitol and other public buildings. He next marched to Baltimore, while his fleet sailed up the bay and bombarded Fort McHenry, that guarded the approaches to that city. For twenty-five hours shot and shell rained on the fort in vain. At the end of the bombardment

"the flag was still there."[1] The land forces attacked the city, but were repulsed. Ross was killed and the British retreated.

The English now gathered a large force under Sir Edward Pakenham, a brother-in-law of Wellington, to

General Andrew Jackson at Battle of New Orleans

attack New Orleans and secure control of the Mississippi and to offer the inhabitants the opportunity of resuming their dependence upon Spain. General Andrew Jackson

[1] Francis Scott Key was detained that night on one of the British ships whither he had gone to secure the release of some prisoners. By the flash of the guns, while watching eagerly the flag still flying over Fort McHenry, he wrote our national hymn, "The Star Spangled Banner."

marched to meet them. The English to the number of twelve thousand were trained soldiers, many of them having fought against Napoleon. Jackson had six thousand men behind breastworks, mostly undisciplined troops but superb marksmen. The British moved forward Jan. 8, 1815. The deadly fire of the Americans broke their ranks. Forming a second time, they advanced; but the Americans sent their bullets with fatal accuracy. Pakenham fell mortally wounded, and the British retreated thoroughly defeated, with a loss of two thousand six hundred men. Only eight Americans were killed and six wounded.

202. The Treaty of Peace; Results of the War. — The treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States had been signed at Ghent, in Belgium (Dec. 24, 1814), but the news of this action did not reach the United States until after the battle of New Orleans, as the telegraph did not exist at this time and the news was brought in sailing vessels. In the peace treaty nothing was said about the matters that caused the war. The impressment of our sailors was not mentioned, and England did not bind herself to give up the right of search. Our naval victories, however, had rendered that proceeding so dangerous that for the future our ships were not molested.

While the war cost two hundred millions of dollars and the lives of thirty thousand men, it produced beneficial results.

Europe learned that we were well able to take care of ourselves, and our ships and sailors could hereafter

cross the seas in peace. Another effect of the war was the development of manufactures. The war tariff, the embargo, the non-intercourse laws, and the high price of freights had turned the capitalists from commerce to manufactures, which had increased to a wonderful extent, especially in cotton goods.[1] Francis C. Lowell in 1814 introduced the English power loom into America and established at Waltham, Massachusetts, a cotton mill. Other large factories were built at Lowell, Lawrence, and Fall River. To protect these industries from English competition at the close of the war, a duty of twenty-five per cent was laid on cotton and woolen goods imported from abroad, and the protective system was thereby established.[2]

During the war the necessity for better communication by means of good roads and canals between the sections of the country was plainly seen. This need led to a renewed demand for "internal improvements," with money to be raised from increased tariff rates, and further developed the growing protective system.

The War of 1812 has been called the "Second War of Independence." We were at last becoming independent of Europe, not only in political ideas and theories but also in our industrial life.

[1] There were only four cotton factories in the United States in 1803. In 1815 there were no less than five hundred thousand spindles in operation, while the consumption of cotton had risen from five hundred bales in 1800 to ninety thousand bales in 1815.

[2] This was the tariff of 1816, practically the first of our protective tariffs. It was bitterly opposed by Daniel Webster, who felt that it imperiled the commercial interests of New England.

203. The Hartford Convention. — While the war was in progress it had been violently opposed by many of the New England Federalists. Under the influence of these men the legislature of Massachusetts invited the states of New England to send delegates to a convention. Twenty-six delegates met at Hartford (1814).

The meetings were secret, and it was believed that the delegates were plotting a disruption of the Union. In the end the convention merely suggested amendments to the Constitution, designed to diminish the influence of the South in national politics and to make the suspension of foreign commerce or the declaration of war by Congress more difficult.

The bitterest feeling was aroused throughout the country against the Federalists. Nothing resulted from the convention, as peace soon followed, but it brought about the ruin of the Federalist party.

Louisiana (1812) and Indiana (1816) were admitted to the Union during this administration.

SUMMARY

The second war with Great Britain began in 1812 and ended in 1815. It was caused by the impressment of our seamen and the violation of our rights of commerce as neutrals by Great Britain.

Our national hymn, "The Star Spangled Banner," was written during this war.

The Hartford Convention aroused great indignation and ruined the Federalist party.

Louisiana (1812) and Indiana (1816) were admitted to the Union.

James Monroe's Administration,[1] 1817–1825

204. Era of Good Feeling; the Cession of Florida. — James Monroe, the fifth President, ushered in the "era of good feeling." The country was entering on a period of peace and prosperity. Roads were built, canals were dug, the great lands of the West began to attract numerous settlers. In 1817 Monroe visited New England and many of the northern states. His journey was a triumphal progress and was of the greatest benefit in breaking down sectional lines and uniting the country.

James Monroe

At this time Spain owned Florida. There were very few settlements, and the Indians, runaway slaves, and outlaws who roamed through the land caused endless trouble for the

[1] James Monroe was born in Virginia of Scotch descent, April 28, 1758. He was United States senator (1790), minister plenipotentiary to France (1794), and governor of Virginia (1799–1802). He defeated Rufus King for the presidency. Daniel D. Tompkins was elected Vice President.

neighboring states. In 1817 Andrew Jackson took command of the forces of the United States. Acting with his usual vigor, he seized a number of Spanish forts and towns, hanged two British traders who were accused of furnishing arms to the Indians, and in three months had the country virtually under his control. His actions threatened to 'cause us trouble with Spain and England. Fortunately Spain was induced to sell Florida for the amount we offered — five millions of dollars.

Sixty thousand square miles were added to our domain by this cession.

205. The Question of Slavery. — Slavery existed in all the thirteen colonies which belonged to Great Britain. At the adoption of the Constitution, Massachusetts and New Hampshire were the only states in which slavery did not exist. It was, however, gradually abolished in the northern states. By the ordinance of 1787 slavery was prohibited in the Northwest Territory, and in consequence the states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, which had been formed from the Northwest Territory, were admitted as free states. During this time Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana had been admitted as slave states. In 1820, therefore, there were in the Union eleven slave states and eleven free states, giving to each section exactly the same power in the national Senate. In the House of Representatives, however, the free states, because of their rapidly increasing population, were obtaining the mastery. The slave states, therefore, resolved to hold their power in the Senate by refusing to admit a free

state unless a slave state was admitted at the same time.

Up to this period the new states had, except Louisiana, been established in territory entirely east of the Mississippi. The large emigration, however, had now crossed that river, and the settlers asked the admission of this new section as the state of Missouri.

206. The Missouri Compromise. — This request brought on a crisis. Should Missouri be admitted as a free or slave state? Upon the decision of that question practically depended the fate of slavery and freedom in the entire Louisiana Purchase. Other questions were involved in this problem. The South, in raising tobacco, cotton, and rice, felt the necessity of slavery to secure cheap labor. It also desired to buy its goods where they cost least; in other words, they desired free trade with Europe. The North, in consequence of the War of 1812, had given up the carrying trade to some extent, had established manufactories, and desired a tariff placed on foreign goods. This would largely prevent their importation and would build up home industries.

There was thus a conflict of interests between the North and the South. In the North, too, gradual emancipation was rapidly bringing about the extinction of slavery, and the disposition to prevent its introduction into new territory was growing. Most of Missouri is north of the lower Ohio river, which was the boundary between the slave and free states. As the prohibition of slavery in Missouri would give the free states a majority in the Senate, and would be a discrimination

against the right to hold slaves, the South vigorously opposed any such restriction. At this critical point a compromise was proposed. It was suggested that Missouri should be admitted as a slave state and Maine[1] as a free state, thus maintaining the equality of power in the Senate; also that slavery should be prohibited in all the rest of Louisiana north of 36° 30′. This plan, known as the "Missouri Compromise," was finally accepted (1820), and the question of slavery was settled for nearly twenty-five years.

207. The Monroe Doctrine. — Spain had lost as the result of revolutions her continental colonies in the New World.[2] They had become independent republics. In 1815 the sovereigns of Russia, Prussia, France, and Austria formed a union, called the "Holy Alliance," to uphold "religion, peace, and justice." In 1822 this was supplemented by a secret treaty, by which they agreed to act together to put an end to representative institutions in Europe and to suppress the liberty of the press. In 1823 they intervened to restore absolute rule in Spain and planned to recover the revolted colonies for the Spanish king, and it is likely that France and Russia expected to secure Mexico and California for themselves. We had at this very period a question to settle with Russia on the Pacific seaboard, for she

[1] Maine had been a part of Massachusetts since 1671. With the consent of the latter state, she now applied for admission to the Union as a state.

[2] Mexico, Colombia, Buenos Ayres, Peru, and Chili were the colonies that had successfully rebelled and were acknowledged as independent republics by the United States in 1822.

claimed that coast from Bering sea to the 51st parallel.[1] If her claims were good, we should be shut out entirely from the Pacific coast.

At this juncture Monroe declared in his message to Congress in 1823 "that the American continents . . . are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers." This was aimed at Russia. Referring to the Holy Alliance, he further declared "that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety," and that any hostile interference with the South American republics would not be regarded "in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States."

This message, reënforced by the opposition of England to intervention in South America, produced the desired effect, and the republics of Mexico and of South America were allowed to work out their own destiny. In the following year Russia made a treaty with us, abandoning all her claims to the Pacific coast south of 54° 40′, which is the southern limit of Alaska.

208. Reëlection of Monroe; Visit of Lafayette. — At the end of his first term President Monroe was reëlected without opposition, receiving the electoral vote of every state. One New Hampshire elector voted for Adams on the ground that he did not wish any President to

[1] Two years previous to this time the czar of Russia had forbidden foreigners to come nearer than one hundred miles of the Pacific coast, north of 51°.

enjoy the honor, which had been paid to Washington, of receiving a unanimous election.

In 1824 Lafayette arrived as the guest of the nation, to visit once more the land for which he had fought so valiantly. He was received everywhere with the cordiality his bravery and generosity merited. At Bunker Hill, exactly fifty years after the battle, he laid the corner stone of the monument which marks that glorious height. Congress voted him two hundred thousand dollars and twenty-four thousand acres of land. He visited Mount Vernon to pay his affectionate respects to the ashes of his beloved friend Washington.

209. Emigration to the West. — The West was now attracting the attention of the nation, and over the mountains poured a stream of settlers. Steamboats began to ply on the large rivers. Towns were built on the banks and forests cleared away for farms and plantations. This movement was aided by the influx of settlers from Europe. In the desire to render easier the communication between the East and the West, a highway was begun, stretching from Maryland westward. It was called the Cumberland or National Road.

SUMMARY

The chief events of Monroe's administration were :

1. The purchase of Florida.
2. The slavery debate and Missouri Compromise.
3. The Monroe Doctrine and settlement of dispute with Russia concerning the northwestern boundary.
4. The emigration to the West.
5. The visit of Lafayette.

John Quincy Adams' Administration, 1825–1829

210. The Election of Adams; the Tariff Question. — At the close of Monroe's administration Adams, Jackson, Crawford, and Clay were the candidates for the presidency. No one received a majority of the electoral votes,[1] and the House of Representatives elected John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts.[2] John C. Calhoun was elected Vice President with practically no opposition.

The question of the tariff became one of the leading problems of Adams' administration. The advocates of protection believed that the tariff should be placed so high that foreign goods could not compete with domestic manufactures.

[1] Jackson received ninety-nine votes, Adams eighty-four, Crawford forty-one, and Clay thirty-seven. As the House of Representatives, voting by states, was compelled under the Constitution (Twelfth Amendment) to choose from the three highest candidates, Clay could not be voted for. He used his influence, however, for Adams, who was elected.

[2] John Quincy Adams, the son of President John Adams, was born in Braintree, Massachusetts, July 11, 1767. He served the country abroad as minister to Holland (1794) and Germany (1797). He was elected United States senator by the Massachusetts Federalists (1803) and six years later was sent to Russia as minister. In 1814 he was one of the commissioners who signed the treaty of peace with Great Britain at Ghent. He was appointed minister to England (1815) and Secretary of State under Monroe (1817). After his presidential term had expired Adams was elected as an independent to the House of Representatives, where he was an earnest defender of the right of petition, and was a strenuous opponent of slavery and secret societies, earning the title of "Old Man Eloquent."

He was stricken in his seat with apoplexy (Feb. 21, 1848) and died two days later. His last words were: "This is the last of earth. I am content."

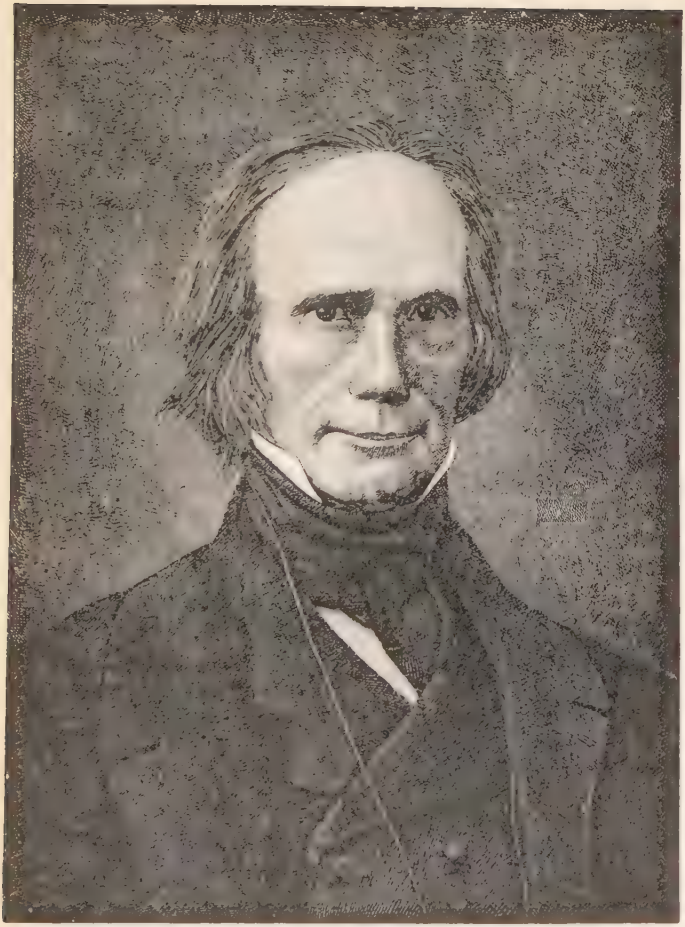
This, they claimed, would keep our mills and factories running at full speed, would maintain a high rate of wages, and would make the country prosperous and independent of foreign markets.

In opposition to this view were those who believed in "free trade," — that one should be allowed to buy his goods where he could get them cheapest. Another class believed in a "tariff for revenue only," — that a tariff should be levied only to raise money to carry on the government, and should not have for its principal object the protection of any industry. In 1816 a protective tariff had been levied, and the great struggle was begun between the friends and opponents of protection that continues until the present day.

In 1824 a still higher tariff was levied. Henry Clay was an earnest advocate of high protection, which he called the "American policy." The South, however, was gradually changing its earlier[1] ideas and was now opposed to a protective tariff, while the North was strongly in favor of it. The South, being an agricultural section, had no factories and believed that the high tariff diminished foreign trade, and consequently the market for cotton in Europe, and also compelled them to pay higher prices for the goods they bought.

The North maintained that a protective tariff established a home market where cotton would bring a higher

[1] In 1816, while John C. Calhoun favored a protective tariff to encourage domestic industry, Daniel Webster opposed the tariff as hostile to the shipping interests of his state of Massachusetts. In 1828 the positions of these statesmen were exactly reversed, Webster advocating protection and Calhoun opposing it.



HENRY CLAY

price. Believing the tariff of 1824 did not give them sufficient protection, a bill was introduced by the high-tariff advocates, raising still higher the duties on imported goods. This bill was passed (1828) and was signed by President Adams.[1]

211. The Erie Canal; Steam Railroads. — The year 1825 witnessed the opening of the Erie canal by

Erie Canal

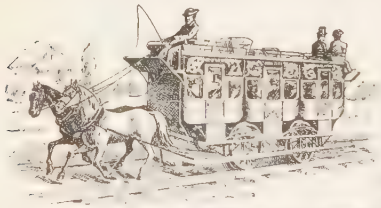
De Witt Clinton, governor of New York. This canal was begun July 4, 1817, and its successful completion was due to the energy and determination of Clinton, who despite ridicule and discouragements kept to the work. The canal, three hundred and sixty-three miles in length, extended from Albany to Buffalo. It was a stupendous undertaking. It traversed forests, crossed rivers, and by means of locks overcame the differences of level, revolutionized the carrying

[1] This has been called the "Tariff of Abominations," "a result," says Professor Sumner, "of the scramble of selfish, special interests."

trade,[1] reducing the price of transportation of a ton of goods from one hundred and twenty to fourteen dollars.

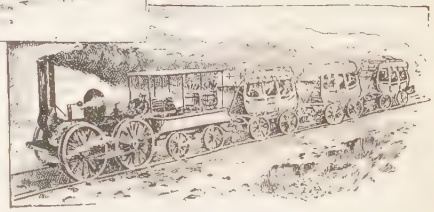
Stagecoach

The vast fertile tracts that were of little value because of their distance from markets became at once attractive to settlers, and they flocked in from all sides. The building of the canal made New York City, which had been second in population and third in commerce, the first city in the country.



Early Tramway

To prevent New York from securing all the traffic to the West, Pennsylvania built a chain of canals and roads from Philadelphia to Pittsburg. Baltimore also took up the work, and Charles Carroll of Carrollton turned



First Steam Railroad

[1] At the opening of the canal the boat carried a load of thirty tons; at the present time they carry as high as two hundred and fifty tons. Over four hundred millions of dollars have been received by the state from freight passing through the canal. At the present day, however, most freight is carried by rail.

(July 4, 1828)[1] the first spadeful of earth of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which was to extend at that time from Baltimore to Ellicott City, about thirteen miles distant. This was the first passenger railway in the United States. The cars were at first drawn by horses. The first steam locomotive built in America was probably designed by Peter Cooper.

Modern Express Train

Railroads were soon built from Albany to Schenectady in the Mohawk valley, and from Charleston to Hamburg in South Carolina. At the end of 1830 the extent of railways in operation was twenty-three miles; in 1840 it had risen to two thousand eight hundred and eighteen miles. At the present time there are about two hundred thousand miles of railway in the United States.

At the close of Adams' administration Andrew Jackson was triumphantly elected President of the United States, receiving one hundred and seventy-eight electoral votes to eighty-three for John Quincy Adams. John C. Calhoun was reëlected Vice President.

SUMMARY

The leading events of John Quincy Adams' administration were:

1. The tariff discussion.
2. The opening of the Erie canal.
3. The building of the first passenger railway in America.

[1] Charles Carroll remarked on this occasion: "I consider this among the most important acts of my life, second only to that of signing the Declaration of Independence, if second to that."

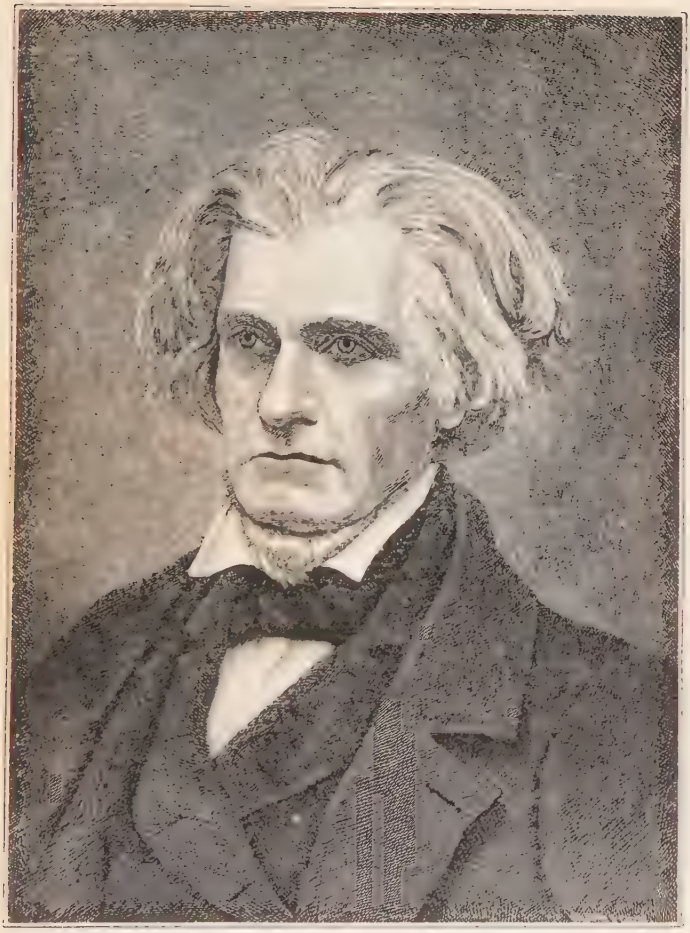
Andrew Jackson's Administration,[1] 1829–1837

212. His Strong Personality; Removals from Office. — The election of Andrew Jackson showed a marked change in the political thought of the country and foreshadowed the leading part which the young and growing West was destined to play in national affairs.

Unlike his predecessors, Jackson had had no early advantages. From Washington to John Quincy Adams the presidents had been well educated, while many of them had ample fortunes. Jackson's early education had been brief; his success had been obtained only by the most strenuous efforts. His triumph at New Orleans, his victories in the Seminole War, and his rugged, sterling, honest character had endeared him to the people. They felt he had come from among themselves. He was especially beloved in the new West, and in his case a western man was for the first time elected President.

Jackson began his administration by removing many office-holders. He believed that the continuance in office of the same persons, year after year, would create an office-holding class. At the same time some office-holders had not only opposed him but had been guilty of partisanship in their official positions.

[1] Andrew Jackson was born of Irish descent, March 15, 1767, in South Carolina. His early life was spent in the direst poverty. At the age of thirteen he was in the army fighting Great Britain. He studied law and later moved to Tennessee. In 1796 he was elected to Congress. He soon resigned and was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court of his native state. In the War of 1812 he became famous throughout the land, and "Old Hickory," as he was called, reached the presidency in 1828, and was reëlected in 1832. He died June 8, 1845.



JOHN C. CALHOUN

To turn out his foes and reward his friends seemed to him a laudable action, and he removed about two thousand persons during the first year of his presidency. Only one hundred and sixty had been removed during all previous administrations. This pernicious system has been followed ever since, although within recent years a great improvement has been made through the Civil Service Law. It is called the "Spoils System"[1] from a speech in the United States Senate by Marcy, in which he declared that he could "see nothing wrong in the rule, that to the victor belong the spoils of the enemy."

Andrew Jackson

213. Nullification; Webster and Hayne. — The tariff acts of 1824 and 1828 aroused the South and brought to the front, through John C. Calhoun and other South Carolinians, the idea of nullification, or the right of a state to declare any act of the federal Congress which was believed to be unconstitutional null and void. In 1830 Senator Hayne of South Carolina proclaimed this doctrine in the United States Senate. He was answered

[1] Jackson did not originate the "Spoils System." It had already been highly developed in the state governments of New York and Pennsylvania; Jackson may be said to have introduced it into national affairs.

by Daniel Webster, who, in a masterly oration, upheld the Constitution and the Union and denied the right of nullification and secession.[1]

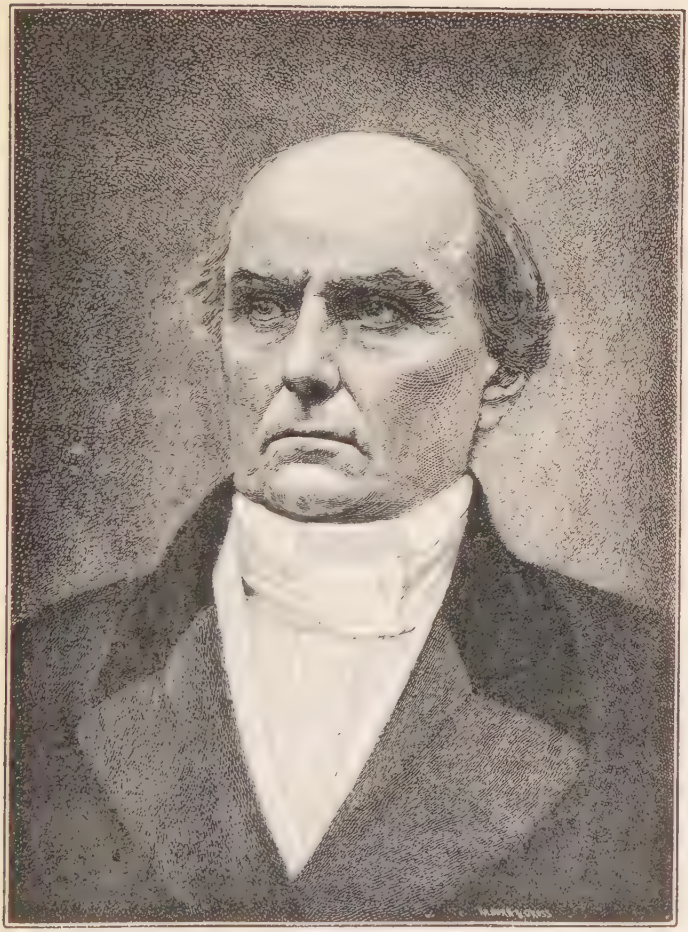
In 1832 a state convention was called in South Carolina. This convention, which was under the influence of Calhoun, declared the tariff acts of Congress to be null and void, prohibited the payment of the duties, and threatened to leave the Union if force were used to collect these duties.

It was indeed fortunate for the country that Andrew Jackson was President. He acted promptly and decidedly. "The laws of the United States must be executed," he said in a proclamation to South Carolina, and at once General Scott was sent to Charleston, Lieutenant Farragut with a naval force to Charleston harbor, while the collector was ordered to collect the duties.

Henry Clay, desirous of maintaining peace, suggested a compromise. He proposed a gradual lowering of the tariff of 1832[2] for ten years, until the duty would be as low as it had been in the tariff of 1816, — twenty per cent of the value of all imported goods. This compromise

[1] The effect of this speech upon the country . . . it is not easy for us at this day to measure. Vast numbers of Mr. Webster's speech were . . . published and circulated in pamphlet editions after all the principal newspapers of the country had given it entire to their readers. . . . A great majority of the people of the United States, of all parties, understood, appreciated and accepted the view maintained by Mr. Webster of the nature of the Constitution and the character of the government which it established. — CURTIS, *Life of Webster*, I, p. 364.

[2] This act modified the tariffs of 1828 and 1830 and brought the duties back to the rates of 1824.



DANIEL WEBSTER

became a law in 1833, and South Carolina repealed its ordinance of nullification.

214. The Abolition Movement. — In 1831 the *Liberator* appeared in Boston. It was a weekly paper published by William Lloyd Garrison, a young man twenty-six years of age. As the organ of the abolitionists, it advocated the immediate abolition of slavery in all parts of the Union. Antislavery societies began to be organized[1] and increased rapidly. They caused the greatest alarm, not only in the South but also in the North, where the mercantile and manufacturing interests were opposed to political or social agitation that would exasperate the South or diminish its prosperous development.

During this same year an insurrection broke out among the slaves of Virginia, who murdered sixty whites. The responsibility for this massacre was unjustly placed by the South on the abolitionists. As the agitation continued and increased, popular indignation was more and more stirred, and in 1835 Garrison was dragged through the streets of Boston with a rope around his waist, and his life was barely saved.[2]

[1] These societies were aided by the fact that Great Britain (1833) freed the negro slaves in her colonies in the West Indies. English territory was now free from slavery throughout the world.

[2] It was this sight that led Wendell Phillips into the ranks of the abolitionists. Antiabolitionist mobs now destroyed the printing presses of the abolitionists in Philadelphia, and Alton, Illinois. In the latter city Elijah Lovejoy was killed in the attack on his office. Many abolitionists dissenting from Garrison's policy of abstaining from political action decided to form a party called the "Liberty party," and in 1840 they nominated a candidate for the presidency.

215. The Right of Petition. — Petitions now began to pour into Congress asking for the abolition of slavery and the slave trade in the District of Columbia. The southern leaders asked Congress to refuse to receive such petitions and after prolonged discussions Congress so voted, though John Quincy Adams protested that the right of petition was secured by the Constitution (First Amendment). These were the famous "gag" resolutions, intended to shut off debate on the slavery question.

At this time the abolitionists began to send their publications in large numbers through the mails to the Southern States.

The South asked the federal government to refuse to forward such literature as it was incendiary[1] and tended to inflame the slaves to rebellion and violence. The postmaster-general ruled that he had no authority by law to exclude such matter from the mails, and on the other hand he would not instruct postmasters to forward or to deliver abolition documents.

The opponents of slavery thereupon claimed that two sacred rights under the Constitution were attacked, — the right of petition and the freedom of the press. Antislavery ideas spread more rapidly than ever; new abolition societies were formed throughout the Northern States, and the North and South drew ever nearer to the final struggle between freedom and slavery.

216. Jackson overthrows the United States Bank. — President Jackson's attention was now turned to the

[1] At Charleston, South Carolina, the abolition papers were taken from the post office and burned in public.

United States Bank. This institution was located in Philadelphia and, with its branches in many cities, transacted the financial business of the national government.

Jackson believed the bank to be an un-American monopoly, unsafe and badly managed. He resolved, therefore, to overthrow it. Although its charter would not expire until 1836, the friends of the bank introduced and passed a bill (1832) to renew the charter for another twenty years from 1836. Jackson promptly vetoed it. In the following year the Secretary of the Treasury was ordered to remove the government deposits from the bank and to distribute them among the state banks. A bitter contest arose over this action, but Jackson was successful and the Bank of the United States ceased to be a governmental bank.

217. Indian Wars in the West and South. — In the West and South at this time Indian warfare spread destruction far and wide among the settlements. In the West the Sacs and Foxes under the Sac chief, Black Hawk, went on the warpath, but were finally overwhelmed on the banks of the Mississippi. In Florida the Seminoles under Osceola burned and ravaged almost all the settlements in Florida. It was not until 1842 that they finally yielded and were removed to the West.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Jackson's administration were:

1. The removals from office.
2. The nullification question and Jackson's defense of the Union.
3. The abolition movement.
4. The overthrow of the United States Bank.
5. The Indian wars of the West and South.

Martin Van Buren's Administration,[1] 1837–1841

218. The Crisis of 1837; the Era of Speculation. — In the administration drawing to a close Van Buren had been Vice President. He was Jackson's intimate friend and adviser, and it was through his influence that Van Buren was elected. A New Yorker by birth, he was the first Democrat from the North to be elected.

The last years of Jackson's administration had witnessed an astonishing growth in the nation: the development of the great West, the wonderful industrial progress and prosperity of the country had aroused to a fever pitch the spirit of speculation, especially in government lands; towns were laid out on all sides, sometimes even in the wilderness; great enterprises were undertaken without regard to cost or reason, and the entire nation seemed to be rushing on in a mad race for wealth. The causes of this wonderful mania for speculation were twofold: the United States was now free from debt, and at the same time money above expenses to the amount of thirty-five millions of dollars was flowing into the national treasury from the

[1] Martin Van Buren was born of Dutch ancestry in Kinderhook, New York, Dec. 5, 1782. He was an able lawyer and guided for many years the politics of the state of New York. He was senator of the United States (1821–1828), governor of New York (1828 and 1829), and Secretary of State (1829–1831). In the latter year he was nominated by Jackson as minister to England, but was not confirmed by the Senate. In 1832 he was elected Vice President by the Democrats and four years later was elected President, defeating General William Henry Harrison. In 1848 the Free-Soil party nominated him for President, but he received no electoral votes. He died in 1862.

customhouses and land offices. As the opponents of the administration believed that the deposit of the public money in the private banks was a source of political corruption, they proposed to distribute the surplus to the states. A compromise was effected, and the surplus, to the amount of twenty-eight millions of dollars, was "deposited" with the several states. This money the states used for education and for internal improvements. The states also borrowed money from abroad and began extensive enterprises, and, relying on the increase of wealth to come from the improvements, they recklessly contracted enormous debts.[1]

Martin Van Buren

219. The State Banks and Wild-Cat Money. — A second cause for this wild speculation was the ease with which money or loans were obtained from the state

[1] Two states were admitted about this time. Arkansas (Ark'an-saw) had been part of the Louisiana Purchase and became a state June 15, 1836. Michigan was formed from the Northwest Territory and was admitted to the Union Jan. 26, 1837.

banks with which to buy public lands. We have seen that the Bank of the United States had failed to secure a renewal of its charter. This led to an increase in the number of banks established under charters from the states. Many of them had little capital. In banks of this kind was now placed the money formerly deposited in the Bank of the United States or its branches. Many of these state banks[1] issued large amounts of banknotes or promises to pay gold or silver[2] when they really had neither gold nor silver. As the banknotes were used to pay for government land, the President became alarmed and demanded specie, or, in other words, gold and silver, for the land. This stopped the speculation; men tried to sell the lands for what they could get, and a widespread crisis ensued at the very outset of Van Buren's administration. Banks suspended everywhere; mills and factories were closed, and tens of thousands of workingmen were thrown out of employment. Many states and territories which had borrowed money from foreign countries were unable to pay their obligations. Seven of them failed to pay the interest to their foreign creditors, and one refused to pay either principal or interest.[3] For many years afterward Europeans looked with disfavor on American securities.

[1] The state banks in which government money was deposited were nicknamed "Pet Banks" because they were favored by the administration.

[2] A bank in Michigan issued notes with a picture on them of a wild-cat or panther. When this bank failed its notes were called "wild-cat notes," and hence banks that were either insolvent or likely to become so were called "wild-cat banks," and their notes "wild-cat money."

[3] Such an action is called "repudiation."

220. The Subtreasury Plan. — To bring about a better state of financial affairs, Van Buren favored a plan to establish a subtreasury for the money of the United States. Instead of depositing its money in state banks, the government now proposed to keep its own deposits. To this end, the bill established the Independent Treasury of the United States, in the Treasury Building in Washington, with branches at the mints of Philadelphia and New Orleans. Subtreasuries were to be provided for at Boston, New York, Charleston, St. Louis, Chicago, Cincinnati, and Baltimore.

The project did not meet with favor until 1840, when it became a law. Although it was repealed in the following year, it was again enacted in 1846 and has since been an important part of the government's financial system.

221. The Antirent Agitation in New York. — Under the patroon system, as we have seen (p. 61), vast estates came into the hands of a few families. One of these vast tracts of land belonged to Livingston. It extended ten miles along the Hudson river and was eighteen miles in breadth, containing one hundred and sixty-five thousand acres. The estate of Killian Van Rensselaer extended twenty-four miles on each side of the Hudson and twenty miles back into the country on each side. Many of the tenants on these vast farms, believing the War of the Revolution had destroyed the title of the patroons to this property, failed for years to pay their rent, and when it was finally demanded rose in arms

(1840) and drove out the rent collectors.[1] For about ten years discontent and disorder prevailed throughout these districts. Finally, after the courts had recognized the titles of the patroons, a compromise was effected (1850) by which the proprietors sold the lands to the tenants at a reasonable price.

222. The Mormons. — At this time a new religious sect arose in western New York. Joseph Smith, Jr.,[2] the leader, announced that he had received from an angel a book composed of golden plates. This book, Smith declared, told the story of the early inhabitants of America and the truth of a new gospel. He called it the *Book of Mormon*, from the name of the alleged writer of the book. Smith and his followers moved from New York to Missouri, where he came in conflict with the state authorities. They moved from place to

[1] There were many objectionable features in the leases of these estates. Besides paying the rent the tenant was compelled to have his corn ground at the patroon's mill, giving the patroon one tenth for grinding, to plant orchards, clear the forest lands, build barns, and pay all the taxes. He was also required to contribute to the support of the minister of the manor church. He could not keep a tavern or carry on a trade on the farm, and if he sold his lease he was required to pay to the landlord one third of the amount received.

[2] Joseph Smith, Jr., was born in Vermont and moved with his parents to Palmyra, New York, when he was ten years of age. He was a well digger, "a man of no standing and no influence." Of the golden plates Smith said: "Each plate was six inches wide and eight inches long, and not quite so thick as common tin. They were filled with engravings in Egyptian characters. . . . With the records was found a curious instrument . . . which consisted of two transparent stones, set in the rim of a bow, fastened to a breastplate. Through the medium [of these stones] I translated the record by the gift and power of God."

place and were finally driven out, settling at last on the banks of the Mississippi at Nauvoo, Illinois. While not a part of their original belief, polygamy soon became an article of their faith.[1] Their peculiar doctrines soon aroused their neighbors, at that time plain backwoodsmen. Smith refused to obey the laws of the state, claiming he was superior to them. He destroyed the printing office of a paper which exposed his crimes. Soon armed strife broke out; Smith and his brother were placed in jail at Carthage, Illinois, where they were murdered by the mob. His followers now determined to get a new home in the far West. Under the leadership of Brigham Young they crossed the prairies and the desolate plains of eastern Utah and finally reached the beautiful valley of the Great Salt lake. Near its banks they founded (1848) Salt Lake City.

223. Development of the Express Business. — William F. Harnden, who had been a conductor on the Boston and Worcester Railroad, announced (1839) that he had arranged to carry money, valuables, and packages between Boston and New York. For some months a valise or two sufficed to carry the goods intrusted to him, but in a year the business had grown to goodly

[1] Polygamy was condemned by the *Book of Mormon*. In 1852 Brigham Young read a copy of a "revelation" given to Smith nine years before, which opened the way for polygamy. The doctrine of polygamy was abandoned by the Mormon Church in 1890, as the result of a law passed by the United States (1887) declaring its property forfeited inasmuch as the Mormons practiced polygamy, which is contrary to our national laws.

proportions. Alvin Adams and P. B. Burke established (1840) a rival express under the name Burke & Co., which became later the great Adams Express Company. Twenty years later the pony express was established to reach the Pacific coast. Stations were located ten miles apart between St. Joseph, Missouri, and Sacramento. Mounted on a fast pony, the messenger started across the plains to the first station, where a fresh horse was taken and the journey continued. At every third station a fresh rider took the mail. In eight days these riders traversed two thousand miles of prairies, deserts, and lonely mountain passes; often they perished in the raging snowstorms, but oftener they fell victims to the Indians. It cost five dollars to send a letter by this express.

The Pony Express

SUMMARY

The leading events of Van Buren's administration were :

1. The great crisis of 1837.
2. The establishment of the subtreasury.
3. The antirent agitation in New York.
4. The rise of the Mormons.
5. The beginning of the express business.

Harrison and Tyler's Administrations, 1841–1845

224. The Election of Harrison and Tyler, 1841–1845. — As Van Buren's term drew to a close the Whigs[1] determined to take advantage of the distress of the times and prevent, if possible, his reëlection. They nominated as their candidate for President, William Henry Harrison, the hero of Tippecanoe, and for Vice President, John Tyler. The contest was a most spirited one. A Democratic paper had contemptuously referred to Harrison as living in a log cabin, drinking hard cider, and skinning 'coons. The Whigs at once took up the cry and called him the log-cabin candidate. Log cabins were erected as the headquarters of the Whigs. With cheerings for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too," processions filled the streets, bearing models of log cabins with 'coon skins hanging at the door; immense meetings were held out of doors, at which thousands of

William Henry Harrison

[1] After Jackson's administration his supporters, who had been called Democratic Republicans, dropped the latter word and became known as Democrats. Their opponents took the name of Whigs. The Whigs in England were opposed to the king. In this country the enemies of Jackson claimed he was as tyrannical in his methods as any king could be, and hence they opposed him under the name of Whigs.

people gathered. The enthusiasm of the people carried Harrison to victory by a large majority, no less than nineteen states giving him their electoral votes. Van Buren carried only six states.

225. Death of Harrison; Tyler and the Whigs disagree. — In the midst of the Whig rejoicings Harrison[1] suddenly died, a month after his inauguration, and Tyler became President.[2] It was the first time in our history that a President had died in office. Tyler was a states' rights Republican of the type of Jefferson, and his views were in important respects different from those of the party that had elected him. The Whigs desired to reëstablish the Bank of the United States, and a bill was passed to that end. Tyler vetoed it. Another bill, framed to meet the President's objections, was passed, but he vetoed that bill also. Tyler was thereupon deserted by the Whig party, and his entire cabinet resigned

[1] William Henry Harrison was born Feb. 9, 1773, at Berkeley, Virginia. His father was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and governor of Virginia. Harrison entered the army and served under "Mad Anthony" Wayne. In 1795 he was appointed captain and took command of Fort Washington, on the site of the present city of Cincinnati. He was appointed (1801) governor of Indiana Territory. He was later elected to the House of Representatives and Senate of the United States. He became minister to Colombia (1828) and on his return spent the years until his election as President on his farm at North Bend on the Ohio. He died April 4, 1841.

[2] John Tyler was born in Virginia in 1790. His father was governor of that state for some years. Tyler was a lawyer, served in both houses of Congress, and was governor of Virginia. In 1861 he tried to bring about peace between the North and the South and, when these measures failed, he followed his native state out of the Union. He died in 1862 while attending the sessions of the Confederate Congress in Richmond.

with the exception of Daniel Webster, who remained to conclude his labors on the new treaty with England.

226. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty. — The treaty of peace, signed at the close of the Revolution, had left in question a large territory — twelve thousand square miles — on our northeast boundary. England and the United States both claimed it, and war was imminent as Maine had sent troops into the disputed territory. England now sent a commissioner, Lord Ashburton, to arrange with Daniel Webster, secretary of state, a new treaty. The boundaries were satisfactorily adjusted, Maine securing about seven thousand miles and England the remaining five thousand.[1] Our boundary line to the west as far as the Lake of the Woods was also determined. The treaty easily passed the Senate, and war was averted. This work being finished, Webster resigned from the cabinet.

227. The Dorr Rebellion, 1842. — The people of Rhode Island had been living under a constitution, granted as far back as the time of Charles II, which allowed only landowners and their eldest sons to vote. Unless a man owned real estate he could not act as a juror nor bring a suit in any court of law until a property holder indorsed it. The representation in the legislature was absolutely unjust, as a struggling village had as great a representation as a flourishing city.

[1] The United States paid three hundred thousand dollars to Maine and Massachusetts for the territory yielded to England. Provision was made in this treaty for the extradition of criminals and the maintenance of cruisers to put down the African slave trade.

Having tried in vain to secure a change in the constitution, the people rebelled, formed a convention, and elected Thomas W. Dorr governor. As most of those who voted for Dorr were not legally voters, the existing state government refused to recognize him.

Both sides took up arms, but little bloodshed ensued. Dorr was finally arrested, convicted, and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but he was soon pardoned. His work was not in vain, however, for a new constitution was adopted (1843), containing most of the reforms Dorr demanded.

Samuel F. B. Morse

228. The Electric Telegraph. — In 1837 S. F. B. Morse secured a patent for sending messages by electricity. Few believed in its worth, and the inventor struggled on in poverty for years. In 1843 he asked Congress to appropriate thirty thousand dollars for a telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore, a distance of forty miles. There was bitter opposition to the bill,[1] one member remarking that a

[1] While the bill was pending Morse was a spectator in the House of Representatives, and said to a friend: "I have spent seven years in perfecting this invention and all that I had. If it succeeds, I am a made man; if it fails, I am ruined."

railroad to the moon would be as reasonable. At midnight on the last day of the session the bill was carried, and the work was begun. Professor Morse sent the first message, which read, "What hath God wrought." In an office in the Capitol at Washington Morse received tidings of the convention at Baltimore and the news of the nomination of Polk. Said one who was present: "This talking with Baltimore was something so novel, so strange, so extraordinary, and upon a matter of such interest that we could hardly realize the fact. It seemed like enchantment, or a delusion or a dream." Here was begun the telegraph system that crossing the lands and passing under the oceans now girdles the earth.

The "Lone Star" Flag

229. The Annexation of Texas. — The burning question during Tyler's term was the annexation of Texas. In 1821 Mexico granted a tract of land in Texas, which subsequently formed part of the state of Coahuila-[1] Texas in the Mexican Republic, to Moses Austin, a native of Connecticut, on condition that he would found a settlement. In 1835 Mexico was changed by President Santa Ana from a federal to a centralized republic, by which the states lost their state rights. Difficulties arose with Texas out of this change,[2] and the Texans rebelled

[1] Coahuila (Co-ah-whee'la).

[2] The Texans did not look for independence at first. They merely desired to become a separate state within the Mexican Republic.

and formed a new constitution,[1] permitting slavery.[2] The Mexican government attacked the Texans, but was finally badly defeated at the decisive battle of San Jacinto[3] (1836). Texas thereupon became a republic, and her independence was recognized by the United States, England, Belgium, and France. At once she applied for admission to the Union as a slave state. She was unsuccessful. In 1844 President Tyler negotiated a treaty with Texas providing for annexation. It was rejected by the Senate, thirty-five to sixteen.[4] The South desired the annexation of Texas that she might increase the slave territory; the North opposed it, believing from this vast tract sufficient slave states would be formed to give the slave power control of the republic. The question was made the leading issue in the presidential campaign of 1844, and Polk was elected by the Democrats,[5] defeating Clay, the Whig candidate.

[1] It was called from its flag the "Lone Star Republic." The Texans declared their independence March 2, 1836.

[2] In 1824 Mexico forbade the importation of slaves into her territory and declared free all children thereafter born of slaves. In 1829 all the slaves in Mexico were freed. The settlers who had come from the United States, however, refused to free their slaves and openly defied the laws of the land.

[3] San Jacinto (Sahn Ha-theen'toh). The leader of the Texans was Sam Houston of Tennessee. He had fought under Andrew Jackson.

[4] Clay, speaking in the Senate, said, "Annexation and war with Mexico are identical." Mexico had officially warned us that the annexation of Texas would be considered a cause of war.

[5] The Democrats took for their campaign cry, "The reannexation of Texas and the reoccupation of Oregon." Referring to the pending Oregon dispute, the air resounded with cries of "The whole of Oregon or none! Fifty-four forty or fight!" — 54° 40′ being the southernmost point of Alaska, at that time of course a Russian possession.

The result of the election President Tyler interpreted as a verdict of the people in favor of the annexation of Texas. He proposed to Congress that Texas be treated like a territory applying for admission to the Union, and be admitted by a joint resolution. This was done, and Texas, having accepted this method, became a state Dec. 29, 1845, with the provision that with her consent four other states might be formed from her territory. Texas was the last slave state admitted to the Union.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Harrison and Tyler's administrations were :

1. Death of President Harrison.
2. The Webster-Ashburton treaty.
3. The Dorr rebellion in Rhode Island.
4. Morse's electric telegraph.
5. The annexation of Texas.

Polk's Administration,[1] 1845–1849

230. The Settlement of Oregon. — Since the treaty of 1818 the United States and Great Britain had occupied Oregon as a joint possession. As we have seen, Captain Gray of Boston discovered and named the Columbia river in 1792; Lewis and Clark later explored this

[1] James K. Polk was born in North Carolina in 1795. Eleven years later his family moved to Tennessee. Polk studied law and was elected to Congress in 1824. He was chosen governor of Tennessee in 1839. Because he favored the annexation of Texas he was nominated for President by the Democrats, defeating Henry Clay. Polk died in 1849, three months after his term as President had expired.

territory, and John Jacob Astor established here his fur-trading colony, which was named Astoria.

The Hudson Bay Company had posts throughout the territory, especially north of the Columbia river. Their principal station was Fort Vancouver, nearly opposite the mouth of the Willamette. Here resided Dr. John McLoughlin,[1] the "chief factor" or agent for the company throughout the Pacific Northwest. The Canadian settlers and Indians had asked for priests to minister to them, and in 1838 Fathers Blanchet and Demers left Montreal for the Oregon country, where they established many missions.

Two years later Father De Smet,[2] the famous Jesuit missionary, started from the Missouri river with a large party of emigrants. He founded (1841) his first mission among the Flathead Indians on the Bitter Root river and later established many others.

[1] Dr. McLoughlin was born in Quebec of Irish parentage and was thirty-nine years of age when he arrived in Oregon. "White men and red alike revered him," says H. H. Bancroft. "He prevented wars, upheld right and justice and ruled with a strong, firm hand."

[2] Father De Smet sailed for Europe and returned with four priests, and six sisters of Notre Dame of Namur, who opened a school for girls. So rapid was the spiritual growth in Oregon that Father Blanchet was appointed Bishop Dec. 1, 1843. "Father De Smet was a worthy member of his order. Young, handsome, intellectual, educated and energetic, he was well fitted to make a favorable impression upon the

231. The Adjustment of the Oregon Question. — The resources of the Oregon country in the years following 1842 attracted thousands of settlers who in long caravans toiled through the passes of the Rockies.[1] Throughout the West the people began to demand the absolute possession of Oregon, that is, all the territory from California as far as the southern boundary of Russian America (Alaska).[2]

England, on the other hand, claimed that Drake had discovered this coast and that settlements had been made by English colonists. She declined to yield up this vast tract of rich country and thereby cut herself off from the Pacific coast.

She finally proposed, as a compromise, a division of the territory at the forty-ninth parallel. This was our northern boundary from the Great Lakes to the Rocky mountains, and it was now extended to the Pacific. An

savages and to succeed in a field which others had either shunned or abandoned." — H. H. BANCROFT, *Oregon*, I, 323.

[1] The statement that Marcus Whitman, a missionary of the American Board of Foreign Missions, first discovered the danger of our losing Oregon and in the depth of winter hurried to Washington, where he acquainted our government with the worth of the country, has been utterly disproved. As a matter of fact, he came east to settle the troubles that had arisen among the missionaries themselves and to prevent the closing of certain missions which had been decided upon by the board. He had little, if any, influence on our authorities in Washington, who already well knew the value of Oregon. On his return Whitman joined a company of emigrants who were already on their way and assisted them with his valuable knowledge of the route. He was later cruelly murdered by the Indians. (See Legend of Marcus Whitman in *Essays in Historical Criticism*, by Prof. E. G. Bourne.)

[2] The boundary was 54° 40′, north latitude. Hence arose the famous cry, "The whole of Oregon or none! Fifty-four forty or fight!"

The Mexican War

agreement was reached on this basis, and Oregon was made a territory with the prohibition of slavery[1] (1848).

232. The War with Mexico; Battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, and Buena Vista. — Texas, on her

[1] Twenty-four years before, a member of Congress opposed the accession of Oregon because of its great distance. "He ridiculed the idea of a senator from Oregon to Washington going and coming in less than a year, whether he travelled overland or by sea around Cape Horn or through Bering's Straits around the north coast of the Continent. 'It is true,' he said, 'this passage is not yet discovered except upon our maps, but it will be as soon as Oregon shall be a state.'" — BANCROFT, *Oregon*.

admission to the Union, claimed the Rio Grande[1] as her southern and western boundary, while Mexico maintained that the Nueces river[2] formed the boundary.[3] President Polk, however, agreed with the Texans[4] and ordered General Zachary Taylor to seize the disputed territory. Taylor did so, advancing to the Rio Grande, where he built Fort Brown. Directly opposite was the Mexican city of Matamoros. The conflict was not long postponed. The Mexicans crossed the river and attacked a band of United States soldiers. Taylor at once attacked the Mexicans and in the battles of Palo Alto[5] (May 8, 1846) and Resaca de la Palma (May 9, 1846) defeated them.[6]

He thereupon crossed the Rio Grande and took Matamoros. Four days later war was declared against Mexico, and fifty thousand volunteers were called for.

[1] Rio Grande (Ree'o Grahn'day) means "great river."

[2] Nueces (Noo-ay'thayce).

[3] The southern boundary of Texas when it was part of one of the states of the republic of Mexico was the Nueces river. As part of the Louisiana Purchase, however, the Rio Grande was assumed to be the southern boundary.

[4] General Grant, who served in the Mexican War, said in his memoirs: "I was bitterly opposed to the measure [the annexation of Texas] and to this day regard the war which resulted as one of the most unjust ever waged by a stronger against a weaker nation. It is an instance of a republic following the bad example of European monarchies, in not considering justice in their desire to acquire additional territory. . . . The Southern rebellion was largely the outgrowth of the Mexican War. Nations like individuals are punished for their transgressions. We got our punishment in the most sanguinary and expensive war of modern times."

[5] Palo Alto (Pah'lo Ahl'to) means "tall tree"; Resaca de la Palma (Ray-sah'cah day lah Pahl'ma), "ravine of the palm."

[6] Congress was informed that "Mexico had shed American blood upon American soil. War exists and exists by the act of Mexico herself." Congress accepted this view and declared war.

233. The Plan of Campaign. — The plan of campaign was threefold: General Taylor was to control the Rio Grande and move southward; General Stephen W. Kearny was to conquer New Mexico and California; General Winfield Scott, the commander in chief, was to advance from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico. In the autumn of 1846 Taylor captured the town of Matamoros and then moved against the city of Monterey,[1] which he won after a four days' battle (Sept. 24, 1846).

He was now ordered to send all but five thousand of his troops to General Scott. In this weakened condition he was attacked at Buena Vista[2] by the Mexican general, Santa Ana,[3] who had a vastly superior force. Taylor won a decided victory (Feb. 23, 1847).

234. New Mexico and California. — In the summer of 1846 General Kearny had marched from Fort Leavenworth to conquer New Mexico and California. He easily made his way to Santa Fe,[4] which surrendered without opposition. The flag of the United States was raised, and New Mexico passed under our rule.[5]

[1] Monterey (Mon-tay-ray'ee) means "king's mountain."

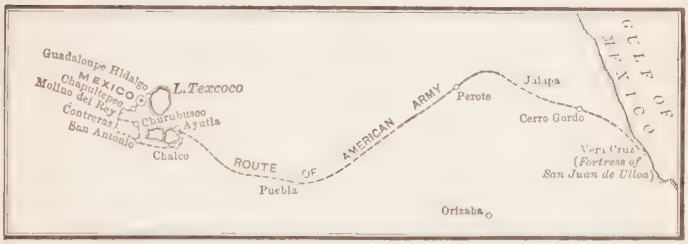
[2] Buena Vista (Bway'nah Vees'tah) means "beautiful view."

[3] This name is often written in its English form, Anna.

[4] Santa Fe (Sahn-tah Fay) means "holy faith." It had been founded probably in 1582 and is the second oldest town in the United States.

[5] A part of these troops were then dispatched under Colonel Doniphan to join our forces in Chihuahua (Chee-wah'wah). This city is in the midst of a burning desert, and the troops suffered untold hardships through thirst and heat in their march. On the route they subdued (Dec. 25, 1846) the Navajo (Nah'vah-ho) Indians, defeated a force of the Mexicans at Bracito (Brah-thee'toh) (Feb. 28, 1847), and won a victory over a large force at Chihuahua. He then joined his forces with those of General Wool at Saltillo (Sahl-teel'yo).

In the meantime, under the advice of Captain John C. Frémont,[1] who had been sent by Congress on three exploring expeditions and was at this time in California, the American settlers in the Sacramento valley declared California to be an independent republic. Commodore Sloat, however, had taken Monterey, on the Pacific coast, for the United States (July 7, 1847) and raised the flag of the Union. He ordered Captain Montgomery of the United States sloop of war, *Portsmouth*, to seize San Francisco. Commodore Stockton, who replaced



Route of General Scott

Sloat, captured Los Angeles,[2] and soon the United States colors were floating over all the territory.

235. Scott's March to the City of Mexico. — After his defeat at Buena Vista, Santa Ana hastened to attack

[1] John C. Frémont was born (1813) in Savannah, Georgia, of French descent. He was called "The Pathfinder" because of his explorations of the far West. He represented California in the United States Senate when that state entered the Union.

[2] Los Angeles (Spanish pronunciation, Lōce An'hell-ace; American pronunciation, Lōs Ăn'gel-ĕs) means "the angels." Its full Spanish name was Nuestra Señora la Reina de los Angeles, "Our Lady, the Queen of the Angels."

Scott, who had landed at Vera Cruz.[1] This port was defended by a fort called San Juan de Ulloa,[2] at that time a position of great strength. For four days Scott rained shot and shell upon it until it surrendered. Scott now started for the city of Mexico, about two hundred and sixty miles away. The road led through mountain passes. At Cerro Gordo,[3] one of the higher spurs, the Mexicans, fifteen thousand strong, awaited Scott, but he defeated them (April 18, 1847).

The beautiful city of Puebla[4] next fell into his hands. He waited here almost three months and then started for the capital. He soon met the Mexicans and defeated them (August 20) at Contreras.[5] They thereupon fell back the same day to Churubusco,[6] where they fortified themselves in and around the old monastery. Here another battle was fought, ending in the defeat of the Mexicans. Our troops pushed steadily onward, fighting the battle of Molino del Rey[7] (September 8). At last they reached Chapultepec.[8] On this strongly

[1] Vera Cruz (Vay'rah Croos) means "true cross." Its full name was Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz, "The Rich City of the True Cross." It was founded by the intrepid explorer Cortés, whose route to the city of Mexico was followed by Scott.

[2] San Juan de Ulloa (Sahn Whahn day Ool-yo'ah).

[3] Cerro Gordo (Ther'ro Gor'do) means "large hill."

[4] Puebla (Pway'blah).

[5] Contreras (Con-tray'ras).

[6] Churubusco (Choo-roo-boos'co).

[7] Molino del Rey (Mo-lee'no del Ray'ee) means "king's mill." This was a grain mill, strongly garrisoned and surrounded by a wall.

[8] Chapultepec (Chah-pool-tay-peck') means "the hill of the grasshopper." Besides the military school, on this hill stands the beautiful summer residence of the President of the Mexican Republic.

fortified height was the National Military School. It looks over the great valley in which lies the city of Mexico. The young cadets, many of them only fourteen years of age, joined heroically in the defense of

Scott entering Mexico

the hill, but in vain. Chapultepec fell (September 13), and the next day our army entered the city of Mexico.

The fall of the capital ended the war. We had won every battle.

236. The Peace Treaty, 1848. — A treaty of peace was signed (Feb. 2, 1848) at Guadaloupe Hidalgo,[1] by

[1] Guadaloupe Hidalgo (Gwah-dah-loo'pay Ee-dahl'go) is a suburb of the city of Mexico and contains the famous shrine of "Our Lady of Guadaloupe."

which Mexico ceded New Mexico and California to the United States. As we already possessed Texas, with the Rio Grande as its southern boundary, an area about nine hundred thousand square miles in extent was added to our domain, — a territory nearly five times the size of France and twenty times as large as Pennsylvania.

In return we paid Mexico fifteen millions of dollars, and assumed the claims of our citizens against Mexico, amounting to three and a quarter millions of dollars. We also assumed the debt of Texas, amounting to seven and one-half millions. An important result of the war was the education of many officers who were later to figure prominently in the Civil War.[1]

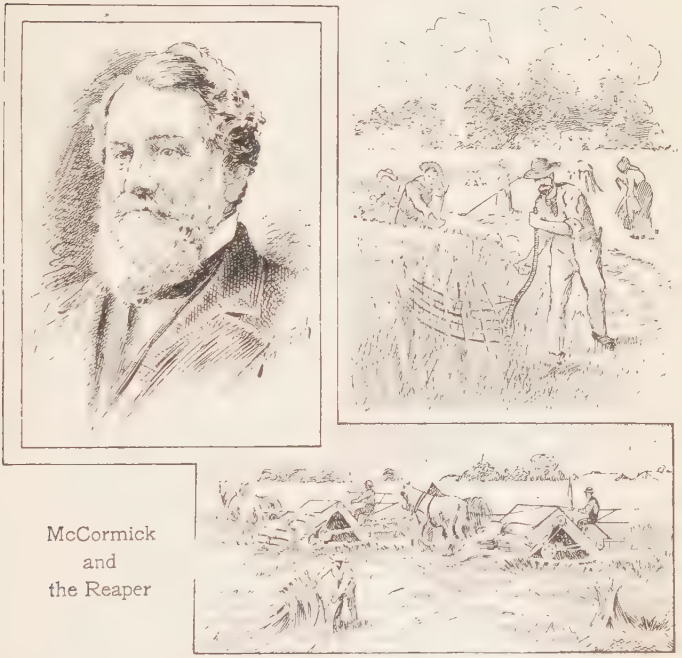
237. The Wilmot Proviso, 1846. — During the Mexican War, David Wilmot, a Democrat from Pennsylvania, proposed (1846) a measure, called from him the Wilmot Proviso.[2] It sought to exclude slavery from all the territory to be acquired from Mexico. As Mexico had abolished slavery in 1827, Wilmot desired to prevent the reintroduction of the slave system into the area that Mexico might cede to us. The Proviso led to earnest and bitter debates on the slavery question, the North warmly favoring the measure, the South as strongly

[1] Grant, Lee, Thomas, Sherman, McClellan, Beauregard, Shields, and Jackson were some of the officers trained in this war.

[2] A bill had been introduced into Congress appropriating two millions of dollars for the purchase of the disputed territory from Mexico. It was to this bill that Wilmot moved to have added his proviso, "that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory except as a punishment for crime."

opposing it. It passed the House of Representatives but was defeated in the Senate.

238. Great Inventions; the Reaper and Sewing Machine. — During this and the following administration a number of great inventions ushered in a new industrial



McCormick and the Reaper

era. Obed Hussey of Maryland patented (1833) a reaper. Six months later Cyrus H. McCormick of Virginia secured a patent on his reaper. For some years McCormick tried in vain to sell his machines. At last the farmers of the great West recognized the value of the new invention, and the reapers came into general

use. They have rendered possible the profitable cultivation of the western wheat fields and greatly reduced the price of bread.

Elias Howe,[1] who lived in the direst poverty, watched his wife one day while she toiled with her needle and conceived the idea of building a machine to do the arduous work of sewing. He toiled for many years and took out his first patent (1846) with money he had been compelled to borrow. Howe's ideas were developed by others until sewing machines were in practically every household. They were introduced (1862) into factories, under McKay's patent, for sewing shoes and brought about a great reduction in the price of shoes.

Elias Howe

239. Goodyear's Discovery; the Use of Ether. — The year 1844 witnessed the great discovery of Goodyear[2] in the treatment of india rubber.[3] Various attempts had

[1] Elias Howe was born in Spencer, Massachusetts. His first machine was operated by a hand wheel. The foot treadle came in later (1851), and still later steam power. Unlike many inventors, Howe amassed a large fortune from his invention.

[2] Charles Goodyear was born in New Haven (1800) and toiled in abject poverty for years. The Emperor Napoleon of France conferred on him the "Cross of the Legion of Honor," and it was brought to him while he was in prison in Paris for debt. It has been said that the rubber shoe has done more to preserve the health of the human family than any other single article of apparel.

[3] India rubber is the juice or sap from a certain tropical tree.

been made for years in the manufacture of goods from rubber, but they were unsuccessful as the heat melted the goods in summer and the cold cracked them in winter. Goodyear, after working for years, at last accidentally discovered vulcanization, a process by which sulphur is mixed with the rubber gum and then subjected to great heat. In this way rubber could be made not only hard or soft but durable, and the secret was thus discovered by which rubber goods became so important a part of man's life.

The greatest boon in the history of the world for the relief of suffering humanity came in the years 1844 to 1846. Dr. Wells of Hartford, in 1844, had nitrous oxide gas (laughing gas) administered to himself for the extraction of one of his teeth and discovered that it produced insensibility to pain. Dr. Morton, a dentist in Boston, and Dr. Jackson, a chemist, discovered in 1846 the value of ether for producing absolute insensibility with safety. This wonderful discovery rendered possible the most delicate and vital operations while the patient remained in profound unconsciousness.[1]

240. The Early Explorations of California. — An event now occurred that was destined to exert a great influence on our history, — the discovery of gold in California. Before considering this event a brief sketch of the early history of California is necessary. The fearless

[1] Among the other inventions about this period were the Hoe printing presses (1845), which led to the mammoth octuple press "that prints, cuts, pastes, folds and counts newspapers at the rate of sixteen hundred a minute," Colt's revolver, Ericsson's screw propeller, and the steam fire engine.

explorer Cortés discovered (1535) the gulf and peninsula of Lower California.[1] Seven years later Cabrillo[2] explored the Pacific coast of California, entering the harbor of San Diego[3] (1542). In 1602 Sebastian Vizcaino[4] with three vessels sailed from Acapulco and discovered the bay of Monterey, which he so named in honor of the viceroy of Mexico. In 1697 the Jesuits began the work of spreading the Gospel and civilization among the native Indians.[5] Mission after mission was founded in Lower California until the society was expelled from the Spanish dominions in 1767. For many years California had been neglected by Spain. Two causes at last served to awake the mother country: first, the fear that the coast would be seized and occupied by another power; second, the need of harbors whither the richly laden ships coming from the Philippines could seek safety from storms or pirates.

[1] The name California was derived, it is believed, from a Spanish romance published in 1510 which described a very rich island called California "on the right hand of the Indies." As California was at first thought to be an island and this romance was published not many years before the expedition of Cortés, the name was applied to the newly discovered land. The upper part was later called Alta (Upper) California, and the lower Baja (Lower) California.

[2] Cabrillo (Cah-breel'yo).

[3] San Diego (Dee-ay'go) means "St. James."

[4] Vizcaino (Veeth-cah-ee'no).

[5] This work was planned and carried out under Father Salvatierra, assisted by Fathers Kino, Riccolo, and others. "Father Salvatierra taught," says Blackmar, "the natives to till the soil, to construct houses, to learn trades; and he practised them in the observances of the Church. Their children were instructed in the rudiments of learning. He looked out for their physical comfort, endeavoring to make them happy and contented as he taught them the arts of a new civilization."

241. Foundation of the Missions. — Spurred on by orders from Spain, the viceroy of Mexico now determined to push the occupation and civilization of California. The Franciscans were invited to extend their aid in converting, civilizing, and educating the Indians.[1] The superior of the order, Father Junipero Serra,[2] personally led in the good work. San Diego was the first of the California missions established (1769), and "the pilgrims there sang the first Christian hymn heard on California's shores." Monterey was founded in 1770, and in rapid succession San Francisco (1776), Santa Clara (1777), San José[3] (1797), Los Angeles (1781), Santa Barbara (1781), and many others, until an unbroken line of missions, twenty-one in number, joined San Diego to San Francisco, spreading on all sides the truths of the Gospel and the blessings of civilization.

242. Decline of the Missions. — In 1813 the first step in removing the missions from the care of the Religious Orders was taken by the Spanish government, but the decree was not carried out. In 1833 the Mexican government decided to enforce the earlier decree, making the missions state property. It was the beginning of the end

[1] The Franciscans had come to Mexico in 1524 and established the mission of San Fernando, that became the mother of all the Franciscan missions in Mexico and California. The Jesuits came in 1572, having already established missions in Havana and among the Seminole Indians of Florida. The Carmelites arrived in 1585, and the Benedictines in 1589.

[2] Junipero (Hoo-nee'pay-ro). A monument, the gift of Mrs. Leland Stanford, was erected (1891) to the memory of this brave and noble priest at Monterey on the site of his landing place.

[3] San José (Sahn Ho-say') means "St. Joseph."

of the system.[1] Gradually the missions decayed; the natives were scattered, until in 1845 the property that had not been stolen or squandered by the officials was actually offered to the highest bidder. Before this step could be carried out, however, the flag of the United States was raised, and General Kearny decreed in 1847 that the missions and their property should remain in the hands of the Religious Orders until the legal title could be decided.

243. Discovery of Gold. — About this time the whole aspect of affairs in California was changed by the world-famous gold discovery. Some years before, a Swiss settler named Sutter had established an estate and fort on the Sacramento river in California. While one of his workmen, named Marshall, was building a saw-mill on a fork of the American river about forty miles from the fort, he noticed (Jan. 24, 1848) shining particles in the mill race. He took them to Sutter, who tested them and found them to be gold. The secret

[1] Speaking of the work of the Franciscans, Dwinelle says: "It was something, surely, that over thirty thousand wild, barbarous and naked Indians had been brought in from their savage haunts, persuaded to wear clothes, accustomed to a regular life, inured to such light labor as they could endure, taught to read and write, instructed in music, accustomed to the service of the church, partaking of its sacraments and indoctrinated in the Christian religion, and this system had become self-sustaining under the mildest and gentlest of tutelage; for the Franciscan monks who superintended these establishments were from Spain and many of them were highly cultivated men, soldiers, engineers, artists, lawyers and physicians before they became Franciscans. They always treated the neophyte Indians with the most paternal kindness and did not scorn to labor with them in the field, in the brickyard, the forge and the mill."

could not be long kept,[1] and soon a wild rush began for the mountains.[2]

244. The Emigration to California. — From every side, north and south, east and west, the miners poured in. Some came overland across the prairies and deserts, where thousands perished from thirst, the cholera, and attacks of the Indians; others rounded cape Horn in sailing vessels, while many came by way of the isthmus of Panama.

San Francisco at the time of the gold discovery was a collection of mud huts, with seven hundred inhabitants. It soon became a city of twenty thousand inhabitants. No less than ninety thousand immigrants arrived within two years of Marshall's discovery. These were the famous "Forty-niners," as the miners were called.

So great now became the number of settlers and so desperate were many of the gold seekers that it became necessary to frame some system of laws to protect life and property. At first vigilance committees were

[1] "One of the workmen came to San Francisco," says H. H. Bancroft, and "holding up a bottle of the gold dust in one hand and swinging his hat with the other, passed along the street shouting 'Gold! Gold! Gold! from the American river.' . . . The judge abandoned his bench and the doctor his patients; criminals slipped their fetters and hastened northward: their keepers followed in pursuit, if indeed they had not preceded, but they took care not to find them. Soldiers fled from their posts; others were sent for them and none returned. Valuable land grants were surrendered and farms left tenantless; waving fields of grain stood abandoned . . . and gardens were left to run to waste. The country seemed as if smitten by a plague."

[2] The news quickly spread to the Hawaiian islands, British Columbia, Oregon, Mexico, Asia, South America, and Australia.

appointed, and later a convention[1] was called to frame a state constitution. A clause prohibiting slavery was passed unanimously. This constitution was adopted by the people (November, 1849), and application was thereupon made for the admission of California as a state of the Union.

Zachary Taylor

245. Election of Taylor. — The question of the extension of slavery was daily becoming more troublesome. In 1848 the Whigs nominated General Zachary Taylor, the hero of Buena Vista; the Democrats nominated Lewis Cass of Michigan. Neither party made any references to slavery. The Whigs were successful and Taylor was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Polk's administration were:

1. The adjustment of the Oregon question.
2. The Mexican War.
3. The Wilmot Proviso.
4. The discovery of ether and development of great inventions.
5. The discovery of gold in California.

[1] Von Holst speaks of this convention "as the most magnificent illustration of the wonderful capacity of this [American] people for self-government."

Taylor and Fillmore's Administrations, 1849–1853

246. The Compromise of 1850. — Scarcely had Taylor[1] been inaugurated when there arose the question of the admission of California. As this state extended both north and south of the parallel of 36° 30′, it was proposed that the question be settled by extending the Missouri Compromise line to the Pacific. At this time the balance was evenly maintained between the free and the slave states, each having fifteen.[2]

The admission of California as a free state would upset that balance and give the free states control of the Senate. They already controlled the House of Representatives. The South, therefore, opposed the admission of all of California as a free state and urged delay or, at least, the extension of the Missouri Compromise line.

There were many other difficult problems to be solved. In the territory ceded by Mexico, besides California, some form of government had to be established, and the question of slavery there had to be settled in some way. Again, Texas claimed that part of New

[1] Zachary Taylor was born in Virginia in 1784, and soon removed with his father, who was a Revolutionary officer, to a plantation in Kentucky. He entered the army, rose to distinction in Indian battles, and in the Mexican War gained fame for his successes. He was loved by his soldiers, who called him "Old Rough and Ready." He took little interest in politics and did not vote for forty years. He was a slaveholder, but did not desire to see the system extended to territory where the people opposed it. He died July 9, 1850, after a few days' illness, universally beloved and respected. Of his death Seward said, "I never saw public grief so universal and so profound."

[2] Florida, admitted in 1845, was offset by Iowa (1846), and Texas (1845) by Wisconsin (1848).

Mexico which lies east of the Rio Grande, a claim the New Mexicans contested. The North, too, objected to slavery in the District of Columbia, while the South demanded a better law to regain slaves that had run away to the North. At length Henry Clay once more appeared as peacemaker and proposed a scheme to settle the difficulties. His bill, known as the Compromise of 1850, or the Omnibus Bill, made the following provisions:

1. The admission of California as a free state.

2. Territorial governments for New Mexico and Utah without reference to slavery.[1]

3. The payment to Texas of ten millions of dollars for her claims to part of New Mexico.

4. The prohibition of the slave trade, but not of slavery, in the District of Columbia.

5. A stringent fugitive slave law.

This compromise led to an earnest debate, in which Calhoun,[2] Clay, Webster,[3] and Seward took leading

[1] This bill provided that the people in each territory should determine for themselves whether their territory would be free or slave. This was called "popular" or "squatter" sovereignty, the word "squatter" meaning "settler." Lewis Cass of Michigan was the author of this idea.

[2] This was Calhoun's last appearance in the Senate. He was so weak his address was read for him.

[3] This was Webster's famous 7th of March speech, which sorely disappointed many of his friends in the North. A meeting was actually held in Faneuil Hall, Boston, where he was likened to the traitor Arnold. On the other hand, immense meetings in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati testified to the joy of the people that the slavery discussion had been apparently adjusted to the satisfaction of all. It was felt later by most people, however, that Webster had conscientiously sought by the Compromise the preservation of the Union.

parts; the three former favored while the latter denounced the bill, which finally (September, 1850) became a law. California, under the Compromise, was admitted to the Union, Sept. 9, 1850.[1]

247. The Fugitive Slave Law; Personal Liberty Laws; Death of President Taylor. — The passage of the Fugitive Slave Law aroused the deepest excitement in the North. According to the provisions of this law, United States officers on the oath of an owner or his agent could seize a colored person anywhere and turn him or her over to the claimant. Even years of residence in a free state gave the negro no rights whatever. As soon as the law was enacted thousands of negroes, therefore, fled across the border into Canada. The slave could give no testimony and could not demand trial by jury, while heavy penalties could be inflicted on any one assisting a slave to escape. The attempts of the officers to arrest runaway slaves provoked the bitterest feelings in many northern cities.[2] In some places the captured slaves were rescued

[1] A treaty between the United States and Great Britain went into effect July 4, 1850. It was called the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, Clayton being Secretary of State and Bulwer British minister at Washington. In its leading features the treaty provided that neither country should exercise any authority over any state of Central America nor any exclusive control over any ship canal that might be built, nor should any fortifications be erected controlling the canal.

A convention signed Nov. 18, 1901, by the United States and Great Britain "provided for a complete abrogation of the Clayton Bulwer treaty and assured to the United States the sole right to construct and maintain" the canal across the isthmus.

[2] In Boston (1851) a negro named Shadrach was taken from the courthouse by a body of negroes and dispatched to Canada. In Syracuse a fugitive slave named McHenry was arrested. An alarm bell

and sent into Canada. Friends of the slaves secretly helped them from city to city till they reached the northern border. This method of rescuing the slaves was called the "Underground Railroad."

One of the worst features of this bill was, it was claimed, the arrest of free negroes and their transfer to slavery again in the South.

The passage of the Fugitive Slave Law led, in practically all the northern states, to the enactment of laws, called "Personal Liberty Laws," to protect the fugitive slaves. These laws in many cases really amounted to nullification, as their object was to defeat a national law.[1]

During these exciting times President Taylor died (July 9, 1850). He had been in office only sixteen months. Millard Fillmore[2] at once assumed the presidential office.

notified the citizens, and two thousand people attacked the courthouse and rescued McHenry. Similar cases occurred in Ohio and Pennsylvania. It cost the United States government one hundred thousand dollars to return a fugitive slave named Burns from Boston to his owner in Virginia.

[1] In most of these laws were provisions forbidding the use of jails for the detention of fugitive slaves; forbidding state judges and officers to aid claimants or to issue writs for the arrest of fugitives; granting to the slave the right of trial by jury and an attorney for his defense, and punishing with severe penalties the attempt to seize a free negro and return him to slavery.

[2] Millard Fillmore was born in Cayuga county, New York, Feb. 7, 1800. He learned a trade, and later studied law and secured a successful practice in Buffalo. He was elected to Congress as a Whig in 1832. He supported the "compromise measures" of Clay, but his signing of the Fugitive Slave Law won for him strong opposition in the North. He was nominated by the Know-Nothings for President in 1856, but carried only one state and retired to private life, dying in 1874.

248. *Uncle Tom's Cabin;* the Gadsden Purchase. — The intense feeling in the North against slavery was increased by the publication of Mrs. Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a story dealing with life in the South. The sales of this book reached millions of copies, and more than any other single force its publication stirred up the antislavery feeling and increased the ranks of those opposed to the extension of slavery. The South maintained that the book depicted unusual and extreme cases and was not a true picture of southern life.

As difficulties arose in adjusting our southwestern boundary, a new treaty was made (December, 1853) with Mexico by which the United States purchased the land. This purchase added about forty-four thousand square miles to our domain in the territories of Arizona and New Mexico, between the Gila[1] river and our present boundary. The price paid was ten millions of dollars. It is called the Gadsden Purchase after James Gadsden, United States minister to Mexico, who arranged the matter.

In the election of 1852 Franklin Pierce, the Democratic candidate, received the electoral votes of every state except four. The Whig candidate was General Winfield Scott.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Taylor and Fillmore's administrations were:

1. The Compromise of 1850 and slavery discussion.
2. The Fugitive Slave Law troubles.
3. The publication of *Uncle Tom's Cabin.*
4. The Gadsden Purchase.

[1] Gila (Hee'lah).

Pierce's Administration,[1] 1853–1857

249. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the Republican Party. — Scarcely was Pierce inaugurated when the slavery discussion was once more to the front. By the Missouri Compromise of 1820 slavery was not allowed outside of Missouri, north of 36° 30′. In 1854 Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois introduced the Nebraska Bill to organize a new territory in the region north of the Compromise line and west of Missouri. Douglas' bill provided for the right of the settlers to decide for themselves whether this territory should be slave or free.[2] This was Cass's doctrine of popular or squatter sovereignty, which had been applied to New Mexico and Utah in the Compromise of 1850. This Compromise of 1850, Douglas declared, had rendered null and void the Missouri Compromise of 1820, which excluded slavery forever from this territory.

He later amended his bill to provide for two territories.[3] It is therefore called the Kansas-Nebraska Bill.

[1] Franklin Pierce was born at Hillsboro, New Hampshire, in 1804. He became a successful lawyer and was elected to the House of Representatives and to the Senate. As President he opposed all anti-slavery measures, being an advocate of the doctrine of states' rights. He supported the Union during the Civil War and died in 1869.

[2] Douglas declared that the "legal effect of this bill is neither to legislate slavery into the territories nor out of them but to leave the people to do as they please. If they wish slavery, they have a right to it. If they do not want it, they will not have it and you should not force it upon them."

[3] Kansas was to extend from 37° to 40°, north latitude, and Nebraska from 40° to 49°. It was thought Kansas, as it lay west of Missouri, would become a slave state, while Nebraska, adjoining Iowa, would become a free state.

The act also declared that the Missouri Compromise of 1820 was repealed. In spite of the most earnest opposition, the bill became a law (May 30, 1854). The Missouri Compromise of 1820 had been the law of the land for thirty-four years, and every one had felt that the area north of the line had been dedicated to freedom for all time.

The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska[1] Act upset these ideas, and the whole slavery question was open again for discussion. The great and fertile lands west of the Mississippi were the prize to secure which the North and South now entered the contest.

An immediate consequence of the Kansas-Nebraska Act was the formation of the Republican party. This party was made up of Free-Soilers, antislavery Democrats, and antislavery Whigs, and it selected the name "Republican" as standing for human liberty and the rights of man as the Jeffersonian Republican party did.

250. The Struggle for Kansas. — The struggle for Kansas was now begun. From the neighboring slave state of Missouri settlers poured over the border, hoping by force of number to make a slave territory.

[1] It is safe to say that in the scope and consequences of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, it was the most momentous measure that passed Congress from the day that the senators and representatives first met to the outbreak of the Civil War. It sealed the doom of the Whig party; it caused the formation of the Republican party on the principle of no extension of slavery. . . . It made the Fugitive Slave Law a dead letter at the North; it caused the Germans to become Republicans; it lost the Democrats their hold on New England; it made the Northwest Republican; it led to the downfall of the Democratic party. — RHODES, *History of the United States*, I, 490.

They established the town of Atchison. But the antislavery forces were also thoroughly aroused. Societies were organized to send settlers to the territory, one of which — the Massachusetts Emigrant Aid Society — equipped a number of expeditions and established the town[1] of Lawrence. Violence reigned everywhere,[2] and civil war virtually ensued. Both sides were guilty of crimes of violence and bloodshed. The new town of Lawrence was burned by the slavery men, and John Brown made up a party and attacked a small settlement of proslavery squatters, murdering five of them. On the election (November, 1854) of a delegate to Congress the great struggle began. Armed bands of slavery men from Missouri roamed throughout the country taking possession of the polls. A slavery delegate was elected. Congress, however, refused to seat the delegate that had been elected, on the ground of fraud at the polls. Four months later (March, 1855) the election of members for the territorial government was to occur. This was the crisis of the struggle, as success for the slave men meant a slave state of Kansas. The slavery forces won, and at a convention held at Lecompton slavery was formally established. The antislavery men held a convention at Topeka, declared the Lecompton convention an illegal body, made an antislavery constitution, and submitted it to a popular vote. As no

[1] The leaders of this movement were Eli Thayer of Worcester, Massachusetts, and Amos Lawrence. The first town was named in honor of Lawrence.

[2] This struggle gave to the territory the name of "Bleeding Kansas."

slavery men voted, this constitution was adopted, and thus two governments were organized. This strife lasted until 1858,[1] when the numbers of the free men were so great that the slave men gave up the struggle, and, three years later, Kansas was admitted to the Union.

251. Perry's Expedition to Japan. — One of the great events of Pierce's administration was the opening of commercial relations with Japan. At that time the only port open to the outside world was Nagasaki, and even here only the Dutch were allowed to land. In the summer of 1853 Commodore Matthew C. Perry, brother of the hero of lake Erie, anchored in the waters of Japan not far from the present site of Yokohama, at that time a collection of fishing huts. He bore letters to the government of Japan asking for a treaty and the opening of the ports. He was asked to go to Nagasaki as foreigners were forbidden to approach that part of the Japanese coast, but he refused to depart. At length the Japanese received his letters and promised to consider the matter. Perry replied that he would return the following year for an answer. He sailed to China and at the appointed time returned to Japan, where his perseverance was rewarded. A treaty was signed (May 31,

[1] President Buchanan recommended to Congress the admission of Kansas under the Lecompton constitution, that is, as a slave state. As this constitution had been rejected by the people, it was contrary to Douglas' ideas of popular sovereignty, and he vigorously and successfully opposed it. His action caused a bitter feeling between him and Buchanan, which later led to a split in the Democratic party and to its defeat.

1854), by which certain ports were opened for trade with the United States. This was the beginning of the wondrous development which Japan has made in the last fifty years.[1]

252. The Know-Nothings. — The year 1854 was marked by the rise to power of the Know-Nothing or Native American party. This was a secret, oath-bound organization that was based on hostility to foreigners and especially to Roman Catholics, native or foreign.[2]

For some years immigration had been increasing with wonderful strides as a result of the development of ocean steam navigation, of the revolutions in Europe, and of the fearful famine in Ireland. American politics at this time were in a condition of unrest and turmoil. The leaders of the Know-Nothings took advantage of this condition to organize a bitter opposition to Catholics. A disgraceful period of rioting and bloodshed followed. Mobs, led by fanatics, attacked the churches, convents, orphan

[1] As a result of Perry's expedition, within seven years Japan made treaties with practically all the countries of Europe.

[2] Hostility to immigrants and also to Catholics has appeared at various times in our history. The Alien Act of 1798 lengthened the naturalization term to fourteen years. The Hartford convention in its proposed amendments to the Constitution included the following resolution: "No person who shall hereafter be naturalized shall be eligible as a member of the Senate or House of Representatives of the United States or capable of holding any civil office under the authority of the United States." Acts of violence soon marked the progress of these ideas. A Catholic church in New York was robbed and burned in 1831, and three years later the Ursuline Convent at Charlestown was destroyed by a mob and the defenseless Sisters and girls driven into the street. Ten years later its violence again wreaked its fury on Catholic churches and convents.

asylums, and houses of Catholic citizens. Archbishop Bedini, the Papal Nuncio, was visiting America at this time; he was burned in effigy in Baltimore, and the militia was needed to quell the riots when he visited Cincinnati. A stone, sent by the Pope for the Washington monument, was destroyed. Catholic churches were burned in Newark, Dorchester, Bath, Philadelphia, and Louisville, while the homes of Catholics were destroyed in many cities. At Ellsworth, Maine, Father John Bapst, the Jesuit missionary, was tarred and feathered. It became necessary to entirely suspend public worship in the Catholic churches of Philadelphia. The Know-Nothings obtained their first political successes in 1854.[1]

In that year they carried Massachusetts and Delaware, polled one hundred and twenty-two thousand votes in New York, and elected seventy-five members of the house of representatives.[2] In the following year they were victorious in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, and Kentucky. In the presidential campaign of 1856 they nominated Fillmore and carried only one state, Lord Baltimore's

[1] At the outset they conducted all their proceedings so secretly that it was impossible to tell who were members and who were not. In answer to every question about themselves they answered, "I don't know," whence arose the name of Know-Nothings. By means of grips, passwords, and countersigns the members recognized one another. By pieces of white paper stuck along the streets, on fences or lamp-posts, members were notified of meetings. Later they gave up their secrecy and held public meetings; in 1856 they had a national convention in Philadelphia.

[2] In Massachusetts they elected the governor, every member of the state senate, and three hundred and seventy-six out of three hundred and seventy-nine members of the state house of representatives.

former colony, Maryland. After this crushing defeat their power began to wane, and they merged themselves with other political parties.

253. The Attack on Sumner; Election of Buchanan. — To add to the bitter sectional feeling, an event occurred (May 22, 1856) which deeply moved both the North and the South. Charles Sumner of Massachusetts was a leader of the antislavery forces in the Senate, and in an address on Kansas he made not only an attack on South Carolina but also bitter personal allusions to Senator Butler of that state. A kinsman of Senator Butler, Representative Preston Brooks, determined to avenge the insult. Walking up to the desk at which Sumner was at work, he repeatedly struck the senator on the head with a cane. Sumner fell to the floor seriously wounded, and for almost four years could not resume his seat in the Senate. The House of Representatives attempted to expel Brooks, but could not secure the necessary two-thirds vote. Brooks thereupon resigned and was reelected, almost unanimously, to his seat.

As the time approached for the election of a President to succeed Pierce the old parties were radically changed. The support of the Compromise of 1850, the Fugitive Slave Law, and the Kansas-Nebraska Bill had turned thousands of northern Whigs against their party, and Webster and Clay were no longer alive to advance its fortunes.[1] Many of the antislavery Democrats

[1] Clay died June 29, 1852, and four months later (October 24) Webster passed away.

had resolved to leave their party because of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. The new Republican party held its first national convention at Philadelphia, June 17, 1856. John C. Frémont was nominated for President. The Democrats nominated James Buchanan, who was elected with one hundred and seventy-four electoral votes to one hundred and fourteen for Frémont.[1]

SUMMARY

The leading events of Pierce's administration were :

1. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
2. The struggle for Kansas.
3. Perry's expedition to Japan.
4. The Know-Nothing movement.

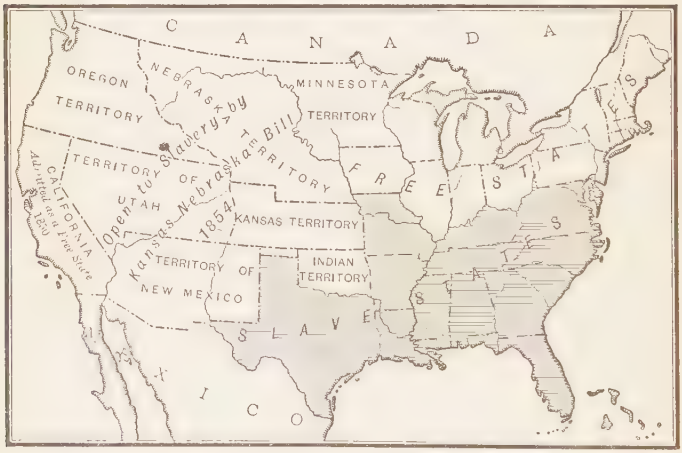
Buchanan's Administration, 1857–1861

254. The Dred Scott Decision. — Two days after Buchanan's inauguration[2] the United States Supreme Court rendered the famous Dred Scott decision. Dred Scott was a slave whose master had taken him from Missouri to Illinois, a free state, where he resided four years. Later he was taken to Minnesota and returned after a time to Missouri. Scott now sued his

[1] The Know-Nothings nominated Fillmore, who received the eight electoral votes of Maryland.

[2] James Buchanan was born in Pennsylvania, April 23, 1791. He was a lawyer and was elected to Congress in 1820. President Jackson appointed him (1832) minister to Russia. He was elected to the United States Senate (1834) and entered (1845) the cabinet of Polk as Secretary of State. He became minister to England (1853), which position he held when elected to the presidency. He died June 1, 1868.

master for his freedom, claiming that his residence on free soil had made him a free man. His case reached the United States Supreme Court, which decided that Dred Scott was not a citizen and could not sue in the United States courts;[1] that his residence on free soil did not make him free; that Congress could not prevent slave owners from taking their slaves with them



Area of Free and Slave States

wherever they desired to go, as they would their cattle or other property; and, finally, that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional and therefore null and void, as it prohibited slavery in that part of the Louisiana

[1] The decision was read by Chief Justice Taney and was concurred in by all the nine justices except two. Judge Taney had freed all his own slaves. He was distinguished by his "accurate knowledge of law, clearness of thought and absolute purity of life." — RHODES, *History of the United States*, II, 251.

territory which lay north of 36° 30′, and consequently prevented slave owners from carrying their property (slaves) into the territory. This decision opened all the territories of the United States to slavery, and made Douglas' theory of popular sovereignty a farce. Great indignation arose throughout the North at the decision, while the South believed it had won a great victory, and two years later, in a commercial convention of nine southern states at Vicksburg, the repeal of all laws, state or federal, prohibiting the African slave trade[1] was approved by a vote of forty to nineteen.

255. The Crisis of 1857; New States. — Five months after Buchanan's inauguration an Ohio bank failed. It was the beginning of a widespread crisis, which in the main was occasioned by excessive investment in railroad building. Factories were closed, men by thousands thrown out of employment, and distress reigned everywhere. For two years there was great suffering, but at last business again revived and the country became prosperous. The discovery of gold in Colorado, of silver in Nevada, and oil in great quantities in Pennsylvania were important factors in restoring prosperity to the Union.

At this time Minnesota was admitted to the Union (1858). Oregon became a state in 1859 with a constitution which excluded from the state free negroes.

256. The Lincoln-Douglas Debates. — In 1858 the Democrats of Illinois renominated Douglas for United

[1] After the decision Dred Scott and his family were freed by their owner.

States senator. Abraham Lincoln was chosen by the Republicans as their candidate for the same position. Both candidates made a tour of the state, and Lincoln challenged Douglas to a series of seven joint debates. These debates, relating as they did to popular sovereignty, slavery, and the Dred Scott decision, aroused the interest of the whole nation. Lincoln was defeated, that is, the Democrats won control of the state legislature, which insured the election of their candidate as senator; but the prominence which these debates gave him made him a leading candidate for the nomination for the presidency in the ensuing Republican national convention.

257. John Brown's Raid. — The bitterness of feeling between the slavery and antislavery men was intensified by the John Brown raid. John Brown had emigrated from Connecticut to Ohio and thence to Kansas, where he took part in the fierce struggles in the settlement of that territory. He later settled at Harpers Ferry in Virginia,[1] and arranged a plan to seize the United States Arsenal, and with the aid of armed negroes to establish a refuge in the mountains for runaway slaves. With nineteen followers he seized (Oct. 16, 1859) the arsenal, expecting the slaves would rise and join him. His enterprise was a failure. He was besieged and compelled to surrender after the death of a number of his followers. Brown was tried for murder and treason and was found guilty and hanged. Six of his companions were afterwards executed.

[1] This part of Virginia afterwards became West Virginia.

Brown's raid had no support at the North beyond his personal friends, but it created a feeling of bitter resentment in the South, where it was believed to be the beginning of a general movement for the liberation of the slaves. This movement would be aided, they believed, by the national government if the Republicans should come into power.

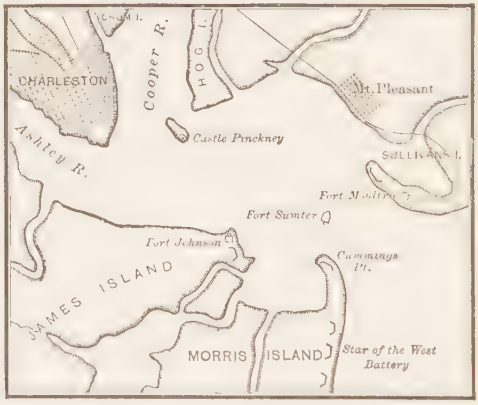
258. Election of Lincoln. — In 1861 Buchanan's term would expire, and a bitter struggle for the presidency now began. The Democratic convention met (April, 1860) at Charleston, South Carolina, but the northern and southern delegates could not agree on the slavery question and the convention dissolved. Another convention, made up of northern Democrats, met in Baltimore and nominated (June 18, 1860) Stephen A. Douglas for President.

The southern delegates a few days later also met in Baltimore and nominated John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky. The remnants of the Whigs and the Know-Nothings nominated John Bell of Tennessee. The Republican convention at Chicago nominated Abraham Lincoln and demanded chiefly the admission of Kansas as a free state, the maintenance of freedom in the territories, and a railroad to the Pacific, while they rejected the principles of the Dred Scott decision. Lincoln[1] was elected with one hundred and eighty

[1] Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky, Feb. 12, 1809. His parents were very poor. He moved with them to Indiana and later to Illinois. Taking advantage of what few opportunities he had, he studied law and was admitted to the bar. In 1846 he was elected to Congress. He was a candidate against Douglas for United States

electoral votes, Breckenridge receiving seventy-two, Bell thirty-nine, and Douglas twelve.

259. The Beginnings of Secession. — The election of Lincoln was soon followed by the secession of South Carolina. A convention passed (Dec. 20, 1860) an ordinance of secession in the following words: "We, the people of the state of South Carolina, in convention



assembled, do declare and ordain, . . . that the Union now subsisting between South Carolina and other states, under the name of the United States of America, is hereby dissolved."

South Carolina thus declared itself to be an independent nation. Events came to a crisis rapidly; Mississippi,

senator in 1858. He was defeated, but two years later was elected to the highest office in the gift of the people.

Hannibal Hamlin of Maine was elected Vice President. Of the popular vote Lincoln received 857,610; Douglas, 1,291,574; Breckenridge, 850,082; and Bell, 646,124.

Florida, Louisiana, Alabama, Georgia, and Texas seceded, and delegates from six states gathered (Feb. 4, 1861) at Montgomery, Alabama, formed a new government, drew up a provisional constitution,[1] and called themselves the "Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis was elected president.[2] United States arsenals and forts had been seized, but Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor was held for the Union by Major Robert Anderson. As he was short of supplies, the federal government dispatched a steamer, *The Star of the West*, with supplies for Anderson. The South Carolina batteries at once opened fire upon the vessel (Jan. 9, 1861), and it was compelled to return.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Buchanan's administration were :

1. The Dred Scott decision.
2. The panic of 1857.
3. The Lincoln-Douglas debates.
4. John Brown's raid.
5. The beginnings of secession.

[1] The leading features in which this constitution differed from that of the United States were : the "sovereign and independent character" of each state , the prohibition of a protective tariff ; the recognition of negro slavery; the right of members of the cabinet to speak in Congress ; and the ineligibility for reelection of the President and Vice President, to whom a six-year term of office was given.

[2] Jefferson Davis was born in Kentucky in 1808, and was graduated from West Point in 1828. He fought in the Mexican War and served in both houses of Congress. He withdrew from the Senate when his state, Mississippi, seceded. Alexander H. Stephens was a native of Georgia. He was serving his sixth term in Congress when he was elected Vice President.

CHAPTER XII

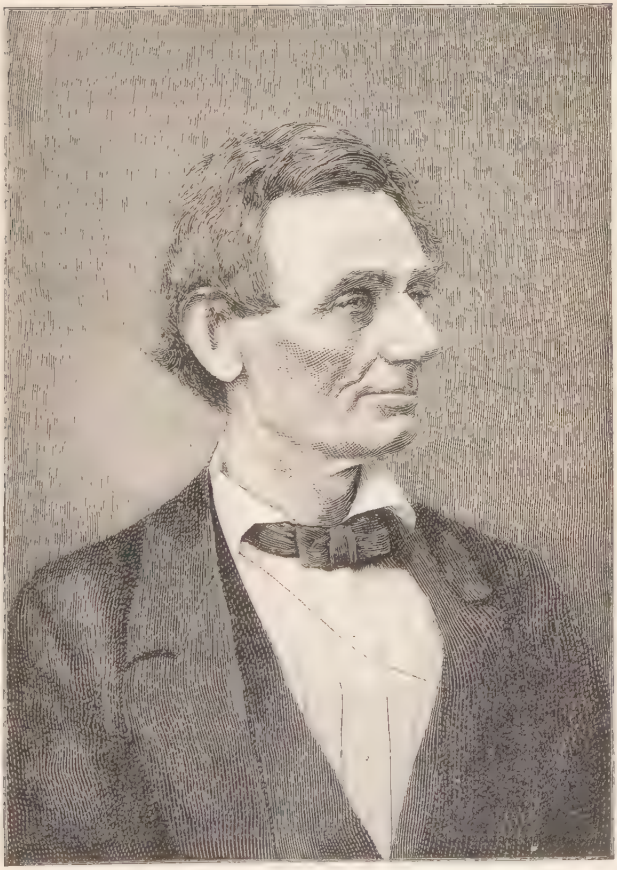
THE PERIOD OF DISUNION

Lincoln's Administration, 1861–1865

260. Lincoln's Inaugural. — In his last message President Buchanan had declared that although the right of secession "was wholly inconsistent with the history as well as the character of the Federal Constitution," it was his belief that he could not lawfully coerce a state or compel it to stay in the Union. The nation now waited with anxiety for the new President.

President Lincoln was inaugurated March 4, 1861. In his inaugural address he declared that he had "no purpose directly or indirectly to interfere with the institution of slavery in the states where it exists; that the Fugitive Slave Law should be executed; that no state upon its own mere motion can lawfully get out of the Union," and as he considered the Union unbroken and perpetual that he would "hold, occupy and possess the property and places belonging to the government."

261. Fall of Sumter. — Lincoln determined to send men and supplies to Fort Sumter at once. Hearing of this, General Beauregard immediately demanded the surrender of the fort. Major Anderson, who was in charge, refused to deliver it up, and before sunrise on April 12, 1861, the Confederate battery fired the first shot at Sumter. For thirty-four hours shot and shell



Abraham Lincoln

rained on the fort. At last Major Anderson, seeing the uselessness of further delay as he was without food or powder, surrendered the fort and marched out with the honors of war. The fearful Civil War had begun.

262. The Strength and Weakness of the South. — Let us now consider the resources and advantages that each side possessed at the outbreak of the war.

In the matter of population the South was at a great disadvantage. There were in the free states nineteen millions of people, in all the slave states twelve millions. As the slave states of Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, with three millions of people, remained in the Union, the North had twenty-two millions, while the seceding states had only nine millions, of inhabitants, and three millions of these were slaves. The South had the advantage of fighting on smaller defensive lines and in a country with which they were thoroughly familiar. They were enthusiastically united, because they felt they were fighting for their homes and against invasion. Accustomed to the use of firearms, they were skilled marksmen. They suffered great disadvantages because of their industrial condition. They had few manufactories or machine shops, few navy yards, and no seafaring population to draw from in manning any vessels they might build. Their coal and iron mines had been undeveloped, and almost every article of food or clothing was imported in exchange for cotton. Cotton was the foundation of the wealth of the South. By cutting off, through the blockade, the export of cotton the South was dealt a vital blow.

The negro slaves tilled the soil, while every white man went to the front. There was practically no reserve force, and the losses in battle told heavily, as the places of the men, killed and wounded, could never be filled.

263. The Condition of the North. — The North had a great advantage before the world in being in possession of the established government and the historic flag of the United States. It was waging a war for the integrity of its national life, although freedom and slavery were the real causes behind the struggle. It had a large population of free men, almost four times as many as the seceding states. This allowed it to continue uninterrupted its manufactories, and to recruit constantly the armies in the field. It had numberless machine shops, foundries, gun factories, and shipyards, with a large supply of skilled machinists. Its merchant marine and fisheries had raised up a race of hardy sailors. It had numerous railroads to move the troops easily from point to point, and soon had gunboats to ply the great rivers and penetrate the heart of the South. It quickly secured vessels of all descriptions to maintain an effective blockade. Both sides were mistaken in underrating their opponents. The North thought it would be a ninety days' affair. Frémont declared he could march from St. Louis to New Orleans with forty thousand men, and Sherman was derided when he said it would take two hundred thousand men to open the Mississippi valley, but events proved he was farseeing. The South believed that the North would not and could not fight; that their mercantile life had unfitted them

be a ninety days' affair,[1] and that the South would not only fight but fight valiantly. Congress voted two hundred and fifty millions of dollars and five hundred thousand men.[2] General George B. McClellan,[3] who had practically driven the Confederates out of western Virginia, was appointed to succeed Scott as commander in chief of the United States armies.

General George B. McClellan

In the West the loyal citizens of Missouri,[4] very many of whom were Germans, had overthrown the state

[1] The feeling of the North at this time may perhaps be illustrated by the story that a northern officer declared to General Scott, "With ten thousand men armed with laths, I could march to Richmond." "Yes," answered Scott, "as prisoners of war."

[2] As there was practically no money in the national treasury, Congress increased the duties on imports and placed taxes on liquors, spirits, tobacco, bank checks, on trades, professions, and, to the amount of three per cent, on incomes of more than eight hundred dollars per year.

[3] General George B. McClellan was born in Philadelphia (1826), was graduated from West Point, and served in the Mexican War.

[4] Among the leading men who held Missouri for the Union were Francis P. Blair, Franz Sigel, and Nathaniel Lyon. General Lyon was born in Connecticut, was graduated at West Point, and served in the Mexican War

government, which was strongly secessionist. The Confederates were attacked at Wilsons Creek by General Nathaniel Lyon, but he was defeated and killed. At Lexington on the Missouri twenty thousand Confederates attacked Colonel James A. Mulligan, who held them at bay with twenty-eight hundred men until he was overwhelmed. The Confederates now took a stand at Pea Ridge in southwestern Missouri, where they were cut to pieces (March 7, 1862). Missouri was now safely in the grasp of the Union.

269. The Blockade. — One of the most difficult tasks before the federal government was the blockading of the southern coast, a stretch of nineteen hundred miles. In April President Lincoln announced to the nations of the world that the coast from the Potomac to the Rio Grande was blockaded, and vessels of all nations were forbidden to go in or out. To enforce the blockade armed vessels were stationed along the entire coast. This measure was of great importance[1] in carrying on the war. It prevented the export of cotton,[2] and thereby reduced the revenues of the South; it rendered difficult the purchase of arms and munitions of war, — a vital blow, as the South had few gun factories or machine shops. To overcome the blockade fast vessels were built. They were called "blockade runners."

[1] It was the blockade rather than the ravages of the army that sapped the industrial strength of the Confederacy. — SCHWAB, *The Confederate States of America*, p. 236.

[2] The value of the cotton exported in 1862 was about four millions of dollars, a falling off in two years of one hundred and ninety-eight millions of dollars.

They were mostly English, manned by English sailors, and made their headquarters at Nassau in the Bahamas.

270. The *Trent* Affair. — In November, 1861, an event occurred which brought us to the verge of war with England. Mason and Slidell, two Confederate commissioners, bound for England and France, sailed from Havana for Europe on the British steamer *Trent*. They were sent to secure the aid of England and France for the Confederacy. Captain Wilkes of a United States sloop of war stopped and boarded the *Trent*, and took off Mason and Slidell.[1] Great indignation was expressed throughout England at the act, and war was imminent. President Lincoln disavowed the act, however, as the United States had always strenuously opposed the so-called "right of search." The commissioners were therefore placed upon another English ship and sent to England.[2]

271. The Privateers. — Public opinion in England, especially among the upper classes, in the early days of the Civil War, was very hostile to the federal government. Many of her statesmen[3] favored the Confederacy, Gladstone hailing the secession of the South as the birth of a new nation. Although England had abolished slavery throughout her own dominions, her

[1] Mason and Slidell had been senators of the United States and were men of ability.

[2] By her action in this matter England gave up forever her earlier doctrine of the "right of search." It was therefore a diplomatic victory for our government and for Secretary Seward, especially, who managed the affair with great tact and ability.

[3] John Bright and Cobden favored the Union cause.

attitude helped to maintain the institution in the western world. One of the most injurious consequences of the indifference of the English government was the building of privateers in English shipyards. At the outbreak of the Civil War our merchant vessels were sailing every sea, bearing merchandise to every part of the world. To cripple this source of revenue and strength the Confederate government issued "letters of marque" to privateers, who thereupon went forth to destroy northern vessels. The first privateer, the *Sumter*, under Captain Semmes, escaped the blockade (June, 1861), and for six months swept the seas, when she was blockaded by Union vessels in the port of Gibraltar and was sold to evade capture. In the English shipyards the building of privateers was hurried by the Confederates. The *Florida* was launched at Liverpool and escaped capture for a year. The fate of the most famous of all, the *Alabama*, we shall see later. In the meantime the Union vessels had captured the forts at Hatteras Inlet and Port Royal, South Carolina, thus regaining a part of the Atlantic seaboard.

SUMMARY

The War in 1861. — 1. The battle of Bull Run, or Manassas Junction, was won by the Confederates.

2. The Union army was defeated at Wilsons Creek, but Missouri was held in the Union.

3. The blockade was established along the southern seaboard and became very effective.

4. Mason and Slidell, Confederate commissioners to Europe, were taken (November 8) from the *Trent*, and England prepared for war.

The War in 1862

272. The Plan against Richmond. — The plan of campaign at the opening of the year 1862 involved chiefly the capture of Richmond and the control of the Mississippi. To carry out the first part of the plan McClellan, with the army of the Potomac, was directed to march across Virginia to Richmond. By this arrangement the northern army would always be interposed between the Confederates and Washington. McClellan preferred to move up the James river. Finally it was decided to station a small force under Banks and Frémont in the Shenandoah valley to prevent the southern troops from sweeping through it into Washington. McDowell was ordered to march from Washington to Fredericksburg and thence to Richmond. McClellan was to sail up the York river to Yorktown and marching up the peninsula join McDowell and capture Richmond.

273. The Peninsular Campaign. — McClellan, who had spent many months drilling and organizing his troops, landed at Yorktown with about one hundred thousand

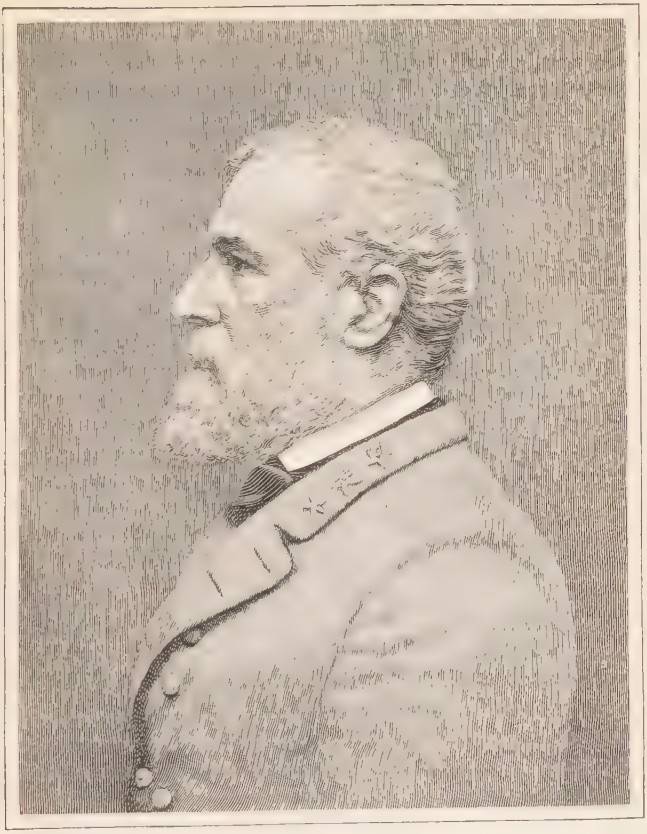
men to begin his march up the peninsula formed by the York and the James rivers. Here he was confronted by General Johnston, who delayed the progress of the Union forces for a month. Johnston then drew back towards Richmond. At Williamsburg (May 4–5) the Confederates again held the Federals in check. The position of the Union army was a most unfortunate one. The country was swampy, the rains had swollen the brooks into torrents, and progress was attended with great difficulty.

Stonewall Jackson

At every step McClellan had to fight his way. With one part of his army on the southern side of the Chickahominy and the remainder on the northern side, McClellan awaited the arrival of McDowell, who was posted at Fredericksburg with forty thousand men to guard the road to the national capital. In the distance McClellan could hear the bells of Richmond and see the spires of the churches. As a result of the heavy rains, the Chickahominy suddenly began to rise and widened into a lake. Johnston now fell upon the Union forces south of the river and virtually defeated them at Fair Oaks[1] (May 31-June 1). In this battle Johnston was severely wounded, and Robert E. Lee took command.

In the meantime Stonewall Jackson with sixteen thousand men suddenly appeared in the Shenandoah valley and demoralized the Federal forces, defeating successively

[1] This battle is also called Seven Pines.



General Robert E. Lee

Milroy, Banks, Frémont, and Shields. Washington was thrown into a panic, and McDowell was immediately recalled to save the capital while Jackson hastened to join Lee before Richmond. This was exactly what Lee wanted, and he at once attacked McClellan, forcing him to fall back to the James river. It required seven days to carry out this movement, the Union forces losing fifteen thousand men.[1] At the last fight, at Malvern Hill (July 1), Lee was repulsed with heavy loss. The campaign against Richmond was a failure.

274. Battle of Cedar Mountain; Second Battle of Bull Run. — President Lincoln (July 2) issued a proclamation calling for three hundred thousand more volunteers. General Halleck, now in command of all the Union armies in the field, ordered McClellan to leave the James and, taking his forces to the Potomac, to join them to the army under Pope. Lee, no longer fearing for Richmond, now hastened to attack Pope, who commanded the Union forces in northern Virginia. Jackson defeated Pope's right wing at Cedar mountain. McClellan's troops now came up, and against the united force stationed on the old battlefield of Bull Run (August 30) Lee hurled his army. Pope was defeated and retreated

[1] Lee sent General J. E. B. Stuart with one thousand cavalry to swing into the rear of McClellan's forces. He did so and destroyed military stores worth seven millions of dollars, took a number of prisoners, and escaped safely.

The Seven Days' Battles were fought at Mechanicsville (June 26), Gaines Mill (June 27), Savage Station (June 29), Glendale, or Fraziers Farm (June 30). In these battles the Confederate loss was about twenty thousand men killed and wounded.

toward Washington, resigning his command, which was again given to McClellan.[1]

275. Battle of Antietam. — Lee now determined to invade the North and crossing the Potomac entered Maryland. Stonewall Jackson seized Harpers Ferry with its military stores. Eleven thousand men fell prisoners into his hands. McClellan hastened to head off Lee, and the forces met (September 17) at Antietam creek near Sharpsburg. A bloody battle was fought, each side losing about twelve thousand men, killed and wounded. Although both sides suffered equally, McClellan won the victory as he stopped the advance of Lee, who now retired across the Potomac. McClellan's failure to follow up his victory by pursuing Lee displeased the government, and Burnside was appointed to succeed him.

276. Battle of Fredericksburg. — Burnside now started for Richmond. He reached the Rappahannock and saw before him, on the heights of Fredericksburg, Lee posted in a commanding position. The Confederates were strongly intrenched on a hill called Maryes heights, and Burnside ordered (December 13) an attack. The troops crossed the river and charged over the level plain to the foot of the hill and up the steep height, while the Confederate batteries tore their ranks with shot and shell. Among the assailants was Meagher's

[1] In this campaign General Philip Kearny was killed at Chantilly (September 1). For his bravery in the Seven Days' Battles he had been made a major general. The Union loss in killed and wounded in these battles was about twelve thousand, the Confederate ten thousand five hundred.

Irish Brigade. "Six times," says Longstreet, "in the face of a withering fire, before which whole ranks were mowed down as corn before the sickle, did the Irish Brigade run up the hill — rush to inevitable death." The attack was a disastrous failure, twelve thousand Union soldiers falling on the field. The Confederates lost about five thousand. Burnside retired across the Rappahannock and yielded his command to Hooker.

The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*

277. The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. — When the Union forces abandoned the Norfolk Navy Yard at the outbreak of the war they sank a frigate called the *Merrimac*. The Confederates raised it, covered it with plates made from railroad iron, and named it the *Virginia*. She sailed out into Hampton Roads (March 8, 1862), and attacked and sank the *Cumberland*, whose shot and shell fell harmlessly on her sides. The *Congress* was next doomed, and the flames, lighting up the sky, told of her fate. The *Merrimac* now cast anchor in the channel for the night. The news of the destruction

wrought by the *Merrimac* struck terror to the North. On this very night a strange-looking craft came into the harbor. It was the *Monitor*, designed by the Swedish engineer, Ericsson. She resembled, it was said, a cheese box on a raft. She was built of iron, one fifth of the size of the *Merrimac*. Her turret revolved, and she carried two eleven-inch guns.

The next morning (March 9) the *Merrimac* steamed out to complete her work of destruction, when the little *Monitor* appeared. The *Merrimac* tried in vain to run her down. A fierce battle ensued for four hours, when the *Monitor* withdrew to the shallow waters offshore. The *Merrimac*, somewhat damaged, thereupon returned to Norfolk. Neither vessel had been able to destroy the other, but the *Monitor* had saved the Union shipping from destruction.[1] This battle gave the death blow to wooden war ships and rendered necessary the entire rebuilding of the navies of the world.

278. The War in the West; Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson. — The Confederate line of defense stretched along the northern boundary of Tennessee from the Alleghenies to the Mississippi and was commanded by General Albert Sidney Johnston.[2] It was the plan of the North to break this line. A point of great importance was Cumberland Gap. To secure this, General

[1] The commander of the *Merrimac* was Commodore Franklin Buchanan; of the *Monitor*, Lieutenant John L. Worden. The *Merrimac* was destroyed (May 11, 1862) by the Confederates before Norfolk fell into the hands of the Union forces. The *Monitor* was lost in a gale off Hatteras (January, 1863).

[2] General Johnston was one of the ablest Confederate generals.

George H. Thomas[1] attacked the Confederates at Mill Spring (Jan. 19, 1862) and defeated them. The upper Cumberland was now lost to the South. To hold the two great rivers, the Cumberland and the Tennessee, was of the utmost importance to the South, as these water ways penetrated as far south as Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia. A glance at the map will show that

the two rivers almost join each other in northern Tennessee and Kentucky.[2] To control these rivers two forts were erected, Fort Donelson on the Cumberland and Fort Henry on the Tennessee, and against these the

[1] General George H. Thomas was born in Virginia in 1816 and was graduated from West Point. His love for the Union was greater than his devotion to his native state. His commanding talents were of incomparable service to the Union cause.

[2] They are only twelve miles apart.

Union forces were now directed with seventeen thousand men and seven gunboats. Grant and Foote moved up the Tennessee and quickly captured Fort Henry (Feb. 6, 1862). The garrison escaped to Fort Donelson, where they were besieged by Grant and Commodore Foote. For three days the fighting was maintained. At daybreak, February 15, General Buckner asked for the terms of capitulation. Grant replied: "No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." Buckner thereupon surrendered with fifteen thousand men. As the Confederate line was now moved southward, practically all Tennessee was opened to the Federals, and Andrew Johnson was appointed military governor.

279. The Battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing. — Grant now took his position on the Tennessee river at Pittsburg Landing, a few miles from Shiloh, to await reënforcements from Buell. Johnston, anxious to crush Grant before Buell should arrive, made a sudden attack at sunrise, Sunday, April 6. The Union soldiers were driven back toward the river, losing three thousand prisoners. Johnston was killed, and Beauregard assumed command. On the following day the battle was renewed. Buell's fresh troops now began to arrive, and late in the afternoon the Confederates fell back to Corinth. The loss of life was appalling,[1] almost ten thousand men

[1] Says General Grant: "I saw an open field . . ., over which the Confederates had made repeated charges . . ., so covered with dead that it would have been possible to walk across the clearing, in any direction, stepping on dead bodies without a foot touching the ground."

being killed and wounded on each side. On the same day of the battle of Shiloh the Union fleet on the Mississippi captured Island Number 10. Fort Pillow fell June 5, and the great river was opened as far south as Memphis. The Union fleet at once attacked and completely defeated the Confederate ironclads here, and Memphis fell June 6. With the fall of Memphis the Mississippi was open to Vicksburg.

Admiral Farragut

280. The Capture of New Orleans. — In the meantime Farragut and Porter had been sent from Fort Monroe to capture New Orleans. This city, with its one hundred and seventy thousand inhabitants, its large workshops, and its commanding position at the mouth of the Mississippi, was invaluable to the South. It is about one hundred and ten miles from the Gulf and was defended by two strongly fortified posts, Fort

Jackson and Fort St. Philip, about ninety miles below the city. A raft, made of schooners joined with cables, had been stretched across the river to prevent war ships from coming up, and a fleet of armed vessels, fire rafts, and floating batteries was anchored above the forts. Although Farragut bombarded the forts for five days and nights, it seemed to do them no serious damage, so he resolved to pass them. It was necessary, however, to break the cables before he could get by. On the night of April 20 a small gunboat silently crept up to the line of boats supporting the cables. The boats were quickly boarded, the cables cut, and amid a storm of shot and shell the gunboat escaped. A path was now opened, and Farragut started up the river (April 24) at two o'clock in the morning, under the fearful fire of the forts. He destroyed twelve Confederate armed steamers and appeared before the city (April 25). New Orleans was delivered up, the forts soon surrendered, and the Union army entered the city. Farragut then sailed up to Baton Rouge and Natchez, both of which he captured. The only important posts on the Mississippi now held by the Confederates were Vicksburg and Port Hudson.

281. Battles of Perryville and Murfreesboro. — The Confederates now determined to break through the besieging line and invade the North. In October General Bragg left Chattanooga and hurried across Tennessee and Kentucky, threatening Louisville. Buell pursued him, and at Perryville (October 8) a battle was fought. It was indecisive, and Bragg retreated in good order to Chattanooga.

Grant had sent large reënforcements to Buell, and the Confederates thinking to overwhelm Grant's left wing under Rosecrans made an attack at Iuka (September 19) and at Corinth (October 3–4). The Confederates were driven back. Rosecrans was now appointed commander of the army of the Cumberland to replace Buell. At Murfreesboro (Dec. 31, 1862, and Jan. 2, 1863) Bragg and Rosecrans met, and a fearful battle ensued.[1] Ten thousand men, killed and wounded, fell on each side. Bragg retreated, and the last attempt to recover Kentucky had been made.

SUMMARY

The War in 1862. — 1. The Peninsular Campaign, under McClellan, failed of success. Pope was defeated in his efforts to reach Richmond.

2. Lee attempted to invade the North and was repulsed at Antietam. Burnside invaded Virginia and was overwhelmingly defeated at Fredericksburg.

3. In the West the Confederates lost Kentucky and Tennessee.

4. New Orleans fell. The entire Mississippi except between Vicksburg and Port Hudson was now controlled by the Union fleet. Of the seaboard towns only Mobile, Charleston, and Wilmington, North Carolina, remained under the Confederate flag.

The War in 1863

282. The Emancipation Proclamation. — When the war began it was not the intention of Lincoln nor of the North to attack the institution of slavery. The purpose of the North was the preservation of the Union.

[1] This is also called the battle of Stones River.

As the war progressed, however, the antislavery feeling in the northern states became stronger day by day. The slaves were very valuable to the South, as they raised the crops necessary for the support of those at home as well as the soldiers in the field. They were also used extensively in war operations, digging trenches and raising fortifications. To destroy slavery, therefore, would greatly weaken the war strength of the South. There still remained the fear, also, that England might interfere in behalf of the South, her mills being closed for want of cotton, while tens of thousands of her operatives were almost starving. In consequence there was an increasing pressure upon the government to intervene to break the blockade. This action would be favorable to the Confederacy. If slavery were now abolished, the issue would be very clearly drawn between the North, establishing freedom, and the South, maintaining slavery. England would therefore find it difficult to justify her course in aiding the cause of slavery after she herself had abolished the institution throughout her dominions.

On Sept. 22, 1862, Lincoln issued a proclamation announcing that if the seceded states did not return to the Union before Jan. 1, 1863, "all persons held as slaves within any state . . . the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States shall be then, thenceforward and forever, free." The seceded states not having returned, the Emancipation Proclamation was issued Jan. 1, 1863, declaring the slaves in all territory held by the Confederates to be free. The

proclamation, however, could be carried into effect only as the conquest of the Confederacy advanced.

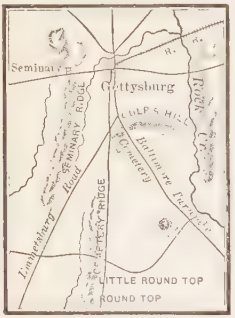
283. The Battle of Chancellorsville. — After the defeat of the Union forces at Fredericksburg Burnside was removed, Hooker assumed command, and both armies went into winter quarters. In the spring Hooker led his forces, one hundred thousand strong, against Lee and Jackson, who were posted at Chancellorsville with forty-five thousand men. Hooker was repulsed (May 1–4), with the loss of seventeen thousand men. The victory was a costly one for the Confederates, as Stonewall Jackson was accidentally shot by his own men.[1]

General Meade

284. Battle of Gettysburg, July 1–3. — Confident now of victory, Lee hurried past Hooker, entered Maryland, and crossed the line into Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington were threatened, and the people of the North were

[1] Seated on a cracker box, Lee and Jackson planned this battle before daybreak. It was the last council of the two great southern generals. After nightfall Jackson's men mistook him and his party in the dark for Federal cavalry and fired. Jackson fell with his left arm so badly injured that it was amputated. In his weakened condition he contracted pneumonia and died a week later.

thoroughly alarmed. Hooker now resigned from his command, and Meade took charge of the army. The forces met at Gettysburg. Here a fertile valley is bordered by two parallel ridges. The eastern or Cemetery ridge was seized by the Union army, while the Confederates held the western or Seminary ridge. The first day's fighting was, on the whole, favorable to the Confederates. The Federals, however, with ever-increasing new forces, gradually seized the best positions. On the third day (July 3) Lee decided to strike, if possible, a decisive blow. About midday he opened on the Federal lines a terrific cannonade from one hundred and thirty cannon and after an hour ordered a charge of Pickett's brigade, seventeen thousand strong, upon the center of the Union line. Onward across the plain swept the gray column, while against them cannon and musket poured their deadly fire. Pickett's ranks were torn to pieces. Lee, seeing the hopelessness of trying to break the Union lines, now fell back and retreated across the Potomac.[1]

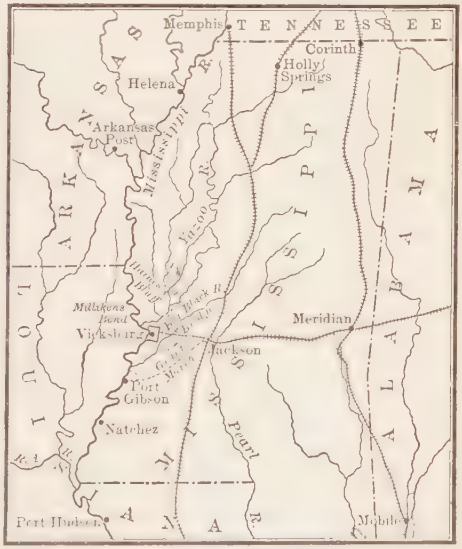


285. The Fall of Vicksburg. — On the following day (July 4) an irreparable loss came to the southern cause

[1] It is estimated that the Union army at Gettysburg numbered about eighty-eight thousand. In killed, wounded, and missing they lost twenty-three thousand. The Confederate army numbered almost seventy-seven thousand, and the loss in killed, wounded, and missing was twenty-eight thousand.

General Ulysses S. Grant

in the fall of Vicksburg. Up to this time Vicksburg and Port Hudson alone prevented Federal control of the Mississippi. Between these points the Red river entered the Mississippi, and through it the great states of Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas poured supplies into the Confederacy. Grant had determined to open the Mississippi, but Vicksburg was heavily fortified on a bluff two hundred and fifty feet above the river and was deemed impregnable. General Pemberton commanded the forces in defense of the town. Grant dropped down on the west side of the river and recrossed below Vicksburg. At Port Gibson he defeated the southern forces (May 1) and then hastened to head off Johnston, who was marching to the aid of Vicksburg. The armies met at Jackson, Mississippi, and Johnston was defeated (May 14). Pemberton's forces were now besieged in Vicksburg. For seven weeks the besiegers shelled the doomed city. Cut off from food and ammunition, Pemberton at last surrendered July 4. No less



than thirty-seven thousand men and one hundred and seventy-two cannon were delivered up. Port Hudson was now helpless and surrendered four days later. The Union forces now controlled the entire Mississippi river, and Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas were virtually cut off from the Confederacy.

286. Battle of Chickamauga, September 19–20. — In the autumn of this year Rosecrans forced Bragg to abandon Chattanooga. Receiving reënforcements, however, under Longstreet and Johnston, Bragg turned on Rosecrans at the valley of the Chickamauga, where a fearful battle was fought September 19 and 20. The Confederates defeated the Union forces, driving the right wing from the field; but the left under General Thomas, from this day called the "Rock of Chickamauga," held its ground and the Union army was saved. In these awful charges the Federals lost sixteen thousand men, the Confederates eighteen thousand.

287. Battle of Chattanooga, November 24–25. — Bragg, confident of victory, sent Longstreet against Burnside at Knoxville, but he was repulsed. Bragg now besieged Rosecrans in Chattanooga, taking his position on Missionary ridge and Lookout mountain, cutting off the Union source of supplies. The Federal army was in a most dangerous position, and Rosecrans was superseded by Thomas.[1] Sherman's forces were brought from

[1] Grant's first telegram to Thomas was: "Hold Chattanooga at all hazards; I will be there as soon as possible." Thomas replied: "We will hold the town till we starve." — FISKE.

Vicksburg. Hooker arrived with twenty-three thousand fresh troops from Virginia, and Grant assumed command.[1] The Union troops charged (November 24) the heights of Lookout mountain, where Bragg's forces were posted. The clouds had settled over the mountain, and hence the engagement is called the "Battle above the Clouds." The Confederate forces on Missionary ridge were also attacked (November 25), the Federal soldiers sweeping up the heights and carrying all before them. Bragg was totally defeated and retreated, while Sheridan pursued him, capturing thousands of prisoners as well as artillery and munitions of war. Johnston now assumed command of the Confederates.

SUMMARY

The War in 1863. — 1. The Emancipation Proclamation was issued by President Lincoln.

2. The invasion of Virginia under Hooker was repelled at Chancellorsville.

3. Lee invaded the North and was defeated at Gettysburg.[2]

4. Bragg defeated the Union army at Chickamauga but was later routed by Grant at Chattanooga.

5. Vicksburg fell and the entire Mississippi passed into the hands of the Union forces.

[1] In this battle, for the only time in the Civil War, Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and Thomas were present together. "The Battle of Chattanooga," says Badeau, "was the grandest ever fought west of the Alleghanies. It covered an extent of thirteen miles." Grant had over sixty-five thousand men; the Confederates had about forty-five thousand.

[2] As there were very few enlistments for the war at this time, the government decided to force men into the service. This was called "drafting." Opposition to the draft resulted in riots in New York City (July 13–16), which were quelled by the troops after considerable bloodshed.

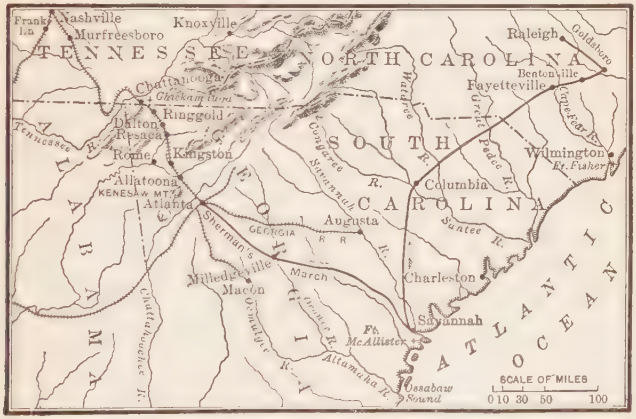
The War in 1864

288. Sherman takes Atlanta. — The Confederates had now only two large armies in the field, one under Lee in Virginia, the other under Johnston in Georgia. Grant was appointed lieutenant general in command of all the armies of the United States.[1] He now determined to push without ceasing the military operations. While he attacked Lee, Sherman was to attack Johnston, thereby preventing the two Confederate forces from uniting at any time to help each other. On May 4 Sherman began his march with one hundred thousand men. Johnston, who led the Confederate forces, slowly fell back before him, burning bridges, fighting, and bearing off all the provisions. He met Sherman at Resaca, Dallas, and Kenesaw mountain, but did not risk a pitched battle. Sherman on advancing was compelled to leave parts of his army to guard his base of supplies from Nashville, three hundred miles away. Johnston's retreat was cleverly planned, but Jefferson Davis did not

General J. E. Johnston

[1] Only Washington and Scott had held this rank. Farragut was given the rank of vice admiral, a position in the navy equal to that of lieutenant general in the army.

believe in the policy of constant retreat and removed Johnston, appointing Hood in his place. Hood at once attacked Sherman and was repulsed with heavy loss. Sherman swung around to the rear of Atlanta, and Hood was compelled to withdraw. Atlanta with its vast military stores fell into Sherman's hands September 2.



Map of Sherman's March

289. Thomas destroys Hood's Army. — Hoping to draw Sherman again into Tennessee, Hood marched northwestward. Sherman followed for a short distance and then returned. Hood, however, pushed on and met Thomas' army at Franklin (November 30), where a stubbornly contested battle was fought, Hood losing in a few hours six thousand men,[1] and Thomas two thousand three hundred. Thomas now intrenched

[1] Among those killed was Major General Patrick R. Cleburne, "the bravest of the brave," says John Fiske, "the ablest division commander in all the Confederate army, west of the Alleghanies."

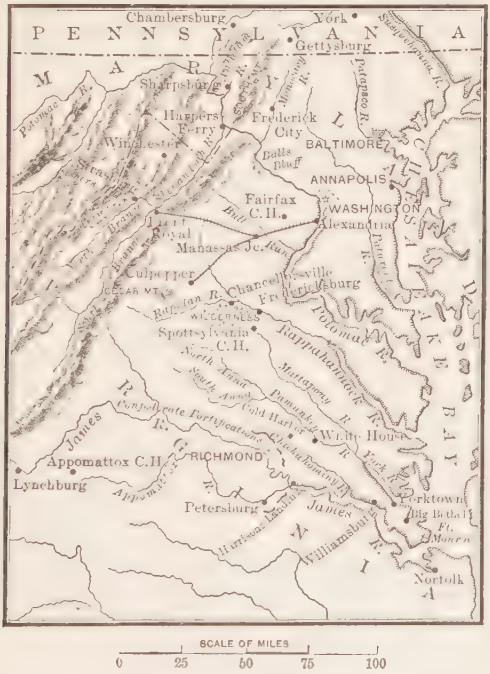
himself at Nashville, where he was besieged by Hood. Suddenly Thomas burst out of the city and utterly destroyed Hood's army December 15–16.

290. Sherman's March to the Sea. — In November Sherman started on his famous march to the sea. He cut the telegraph wires to the North, burned Atlanta, and with sixty thousand veteran troops moved onward. His army swept through the country, cutting a swath sixty miles wide. Everything of use to the Confederacy was seized. Railroads were torn up, and the rails heated and bent; bridges and public property were destroyed. There was no force to oppose the invading column, which early in December approached Savannah. With the aid of the blockading fleet Sherman stormed Fort McAllister, which guarded Savannah, and Savannah fell. Sherman sent a telegram to President Lincoln (December 22), presenting "as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty guns, and plenty of ammunition."

General W. T. Sherman

291. The Fate of the *Alabama*; Fall of Mobile. — One of the vessels fitted out in England against the protests of the United States government was the

Alabama. Handled with great skill, and being a swift vessel, she did enormous damage to northern shipping, no less than sixty-three merchantmen falling into her hands. The United States war ship *Kearsarge* met



her (June, 1864) off Cherbourg, France. In the battle that ensued the *Alabama* was sunk, her officers escaping on an English yacht. In August Farragut, with his fleet of four monitors and twenty-one wooden ships, attacked the Confederate forts and war ships in Mobile bay. He compelled the forts to surrender, and

destroyed the war ships. This closed the last southern seaport.

292. Grant attacks Lee; Battles of the Wilderness. — Let us now see what Grant was doing in the North. According to the plan arranged with Sherman, Grant's force was to move to Richmond the same day that Sherman started towards the sea. Grant crossed the Rapidan (May 4) and entered a desolate region known as the "Wilderness," a tract of country covered with scrubby pines and thick undergrowth. Here Lee attacked him. The fighting was incessant. In two months, in the battles of the Wilderness (May 5–9), Spottsylvania Court House (May 9–20), and Cold Harbor (June 3), Grant lost fifty thousand men. Lee's lines were still unbroken, however, and Grant abandoned the direct attack. He now marched his forces around Richmond, across the James, and attacked Petersburg.

293. Sheridan defeats Early. — In July General Jubal Early started with twenty thousand cavalry to make an attack on Washington. He came within sight of the city and then turned into the Shenandoah valley. Sheridan was sent to attack him. They met at Winchester (September 19), and Early was driven back. On October 19 Sheridan was in Winchester and heard the reverberation of heavy cannonading. Mounting his horse, he hurried to the scene of battle. He arrived just in time to save his troops that had been surprised and routed by Early. Sheridan, dashing up, turned back the fugitives, and soon Early was fleeing before the victorious troops. Grant now ordered Sheridan

to lay waste the Shenandoah valley. Everything that could be of any use to the Confederates was gathered up or destroyed. It was as if a wave of flame had swept down the beautiful valley.

294. Grant before Petersburg; the Reëlection of President Lincoln. — In the meantime Grant was besieging Petersburg twenty miles south of Richmond. Here Lee was intrenched with sixty thousand men. As a part of the defenses of Richmond, Petersburg was of the utmost importance. Grant tried to storm it but in vain. A mine was therefore secretly dug under the Confederate fortifications.

Sheridan's Famous Ride

It was exploded (July 30), and the Federals, rushing forward to enter the city, were repulsed with fearful loss. Grant now fell upon the Weldon Railroad, by which supplies entered Richmond from the South. Fierce fighting ensued, but Grant held it firmly. In the fall of 1864 the Republicans, joined by all in favor of prosecuting the war, renominated Abraham Lincoln

for President on the Union ticket. Andrew Johnson was nominated for Vice President. The Democrats nominated General George B. McClellan for President. McClellan carried only the states of New Jersey, Delaware, and Kentucky. Eleven states that had seceded did not vote. Lincoln was reëlected.

SUMMARY

The War in 1864. — 1. Sherman drove Johnston before him, defeated Hood, and took Atlanta. He then began his march to the sea, capturing Savannah.

2. Thomas annihilated Hood's army before Nashville.

3. Grant began his march through the Wilderness, fighting constantly, but gradually drawing in the lines around Richmond.

4. The *Alabama* fought the *Kearsarge* off Cherbourg, and was destroyed.

5. President Lincoln was reëlected with Andrew Johnson for Vice President.

The War in 1865

295. Sherman marches northward. — One month after the capture of Savannah Sherman began his northward march across the state of South Carolina. Columbia, the capital, fell into his hands and was accidentally burned. Johnston had been again placed in command and tried to block Sherman's onward march. After entering the state of North Carolina Sherman met Johnston at Goldsboro (March 19).

The end of the Confederacy was now at hand. The federal government held every seaport. Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan were drawing closer and closer

to Richmond. The Union ranks were being filled up daily with fresh troops, while the southern armies could not replace the men that had fallen.

296. Fall of Richmond; Lee's Surrender. — Sheridan had now come east from the Shenandoah valley. He destroyed the canals and railroads that brought supplies to Lee's army. At Five Forks he took five thousand prisoners. Lee in lengthening his line to defend his outworks weakened it to such an extent that Grant broke through the intrenchments. On April 2 Lee sent word to Jefferson Davis that Richmond and Petersburg must be abandoned, and on April 3 the Federal troops entered Richmond. Lee fled westward, hoping to join his forces with Johnston's, but Sheridan outmarched him and planted his troops across the route. Lee, seeing his position was hopeless, surrendered to General Grant his army of twenty-six thousand men at Appomattox Court House, April 9. The most liberal terms of surrender were given. Lee was not asked to give up his sword nor his men their horses. "They will need them for the spring plowing," remarked Grant. As Lee's soldiers were on the point of starvation twenty-five thousand rations were issued to them. On April 26 Johnston surrendered to Sherman. Jefferson Davis, with his cabinet, fled southward on the fall of Richmond, but was captured (May 10) at Irwinville, Georgia. He was confined at Fort Monroe for two years and then released on bail. He was never afterwards disturbed.

297. Cost of the War; Results of the War. — It is probable that the war cost the country the lives of

seven hundred thousand men. The debt of the nation rose to nearly three billions of dollars, to which must be added the debts incurred by states and municipalities. When to this is added the amount paid for pensions, and the loss of property and wages, the total cost is simply beyond calculation. The war settled forever the slavery question, for the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, adopted December, 1865, abolished slavery. It also settled the question of secession. No state thereafter can claim the right to secede from the Union.

298. Assassination of President Lincoln. — The joy of the nation at the return of peace was suddenly turned into mourning. On the night of April 14, 1865, President Lincoln was shot in the head while in his box at Ford's Theater in Washington by an actor named John Wilkes Booth. The assassin leaped from the box to the stage, shouted "Sic semper tyrannis!"[1] and although his leg was broken in jumping, he escaped to Virginia, where he was later shot in a barn.[2] President Lincoln never regained consciousness after the fatal shot and died the next morning. Secretary Seward was stabbed while on a sick bed by a man who forced his way into the room. The wounds were not fatal, however.

[1] *Sic semper tyrannis* (Ever thus to tyrants) is the motto of the state of Virginia.

[2] A court-martial sentenced four persons to death for assisting in the plot to assassinate the President, and they were later executed.

CHAPTER XIII

THE PERIOD OF REUNION

Andrew Johnson's Administration, 1865–1869

299. Accession of Andrew Johnson; Review of the Troops. — Within three hours of the death of President Lincoln, Andrew Johnson[1] took the oath of office as President of the United States. On May 23–24 the armies of Grant and Sherman, a column thirty miles long, were reviewed by President Johnson and his cabinet.

An amnesty proclamation was issued by the President (May 29, 1865), offering pardon to all former Confederates, except certain classes, on condition of their taking an oath to support the Constitution of the United States and to abide by the laws and proclamations made regarding slaves.

300. Johnson plans Reconstruction. — The South was at this time in a most demoralized condition.[2] War had

[1] Andrew Johnson was born in North Carolina in 1808. He was too poor to receive an education and became a tailor. His wife, however, instructed him, and he rose gradually to distinction. He was elected congressman in 1843 and ten years later governor of Tennessee. He was United States senator and opposed secession so strongly that he was appointed military governor of his native state in 1862. He was elected Vice President in 1864 and succeeded to the presidency on the death of President Lincoln.

[2] Henry W. Grady vividly describes the southern soldier returning from the war to find "his house in ruins, his farm devastated, his slaves free, his stock killed, his barn empty, his trade destroyed, his money

spread ruin far and wide; there were practically no state governments, nor revenue collectors, nor courts, and no mail service. Johnson sought to bring order out of chaos by establishing at once all the federal offices and courts. He also raised the blockade from the southern ports. Believing the power of reconstructing the states rested in the President rather than in Congress, he appointed a governor over each of the seceded states and allowed a convention to be called. These conventions repealed the ordinances of secession and agreed never to pay the debt contracted by the Confederacy. They also abolished slavery and accepted the Thirteenth Amendment. State officers and senators and representatives to Congress were elected.

301. The Thirteenth Amendment. — The Emancipation Proclamation of Jan. 1, 1863, had declared the slaves to be free in such parts of the country as were in the control of the Confederates and had not been recovered by the Union forces. It did not, however, destroy slavery, and slaves could again be purchased. Moreover, some of the slave states had never left the Union,[1] and hence the proclamation did not apply to them at all. To abolish slavery everywhere in the

worthless; his social system, feudal in its magnificence, swept away; his people without law or legal status; his comrades slain, and the burdens of others heavy on his shoulders. Crushed by defeat, his very traditions gone; without money, credit, employment, material training; and besides all this, confronted by the gravest problem that ever met human intelligence — the establishing of a status for the vast body of his liberated slaves."

[1] Maryland, Delaware, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri.

Union forever, the Thirteenth Amendment was submitted to the states in February, 1865. The necessary three fourths of the states ratified it, and it was adopted Dec. 18, 1865. The institution of slavery was now destroyed forever in the United States.

302. Civil Rights Bill. — When Congress assembled it refused to recognize Johnson's scheme of reconstruction and denied admission to the representatives and senators elected by the Southern States. Congress believed that the seceded states should not be allowed to return to the Union until the negro should be intrenched in his rights. What confirmed Congress in this view was the fact that certain Southern States had passed labor laws which Congress believed would place the negro in slavery again. By the new state constitutions only white men could vote or hold office. Congress therefore passed the Civil Rights Bill, giving to the negro the rights of a citizen of the United States and power to sue in the federal courts. This, however, did not make him a citizen of any state, neither did it give him the right to vote. The President believed the South would deal fairly with the "freedmen," as the negroes were now called, and vetoed the bill. It was passed over his veto and became a law (April 9, 1866).

303. The Fourteenth Amendment; the Freedmen's Bureau Bill. — To make permanent in the national Constitution the provisions of the Civil Rights Bill, Congress passed (June, 1866) the Fourteenth Amendment. This amendment gave citizenship to the negro; forbade, except under certain conditions, the Confederate leaders

to hold office; guaranteed the validity of the debt of the United States and forbade the payment of the debts of the Confederacy; the refusal of any state to grant the franchise to any of its citizens would result in cutting down the representation in Congress from the offending state. This amendment was adopted July 28, 1868. Congress passed the Freedmen's Bureau Bill, giving military protection to the negroes and to the whites of the South who had opposed secession. The President vetoed the bill, and it was at once passed over his veto (July 16, 1866).

304. The Reconstruction Acts. — The strife between the President and Congress had become very bitter. As the Republican party had two thirds majority of each house of Congress, it could enact legislation regardless of the President's wishes. In 1867 it passed the Reconstruction Acts over the President's veto. These acts provided for the military government of the ten seceded states. Tennessee had complied with the requirements of Congress and had been readmitted to the Union (March, 1866). Each seceded state was now required to make a new constitution which should grant the suffrage to the negroes, and to acknowledge the Fourteenth Amendment. At first all the Southern States rejected this amendment, but finally North and South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Arkansas accepted these terms and were readmitted (July, 1868).

In the unsettled conditions in many of these states unprincipled men joined with the illiterate negro voters and secured control of political affairs, setting up in

many cases governments that were a disgrace to Republican institutions. Enormous debts were contracted, and money was spent lavishly and corruptly. Many of these men came to the South with practically nothing except a valise or carpet bag, as it was called. Hence the name "carpetbaggers" was applied to them.

305. The Tenure of Office Act; General Amnesty. — To decrease the power of the President Congress now passed the Tenure of Office Act. As the consent of the Senate was necessary for the appointment of certain officials, this act required the same consent for their removal. Johnson believed the act to be unconstitutional and removed Stanton, secretary of war, whom he cordially disliked. The Senate refused its consent to the removal, but the President would not reinstate Stanton.

Congress consequently impeached Johnson in February, 1868, of high crimes and misdemeanors. The trial lasted from March 5 to May 16, and was exceedingly bitter. Although the Republicans had more than two thirds majority in the Senate, eleven Republicans refused to vote for his conviction and he was acquitted.[1]

On Christmas Day, 1868, full pardon and amnesty was extended to all who had participated in the war against the Union.

[1] The vote stood thirty-five to nineteen. Eight Democrats joined with the eleven Republicans in voting not guilty. The President was acquitted by one vote.

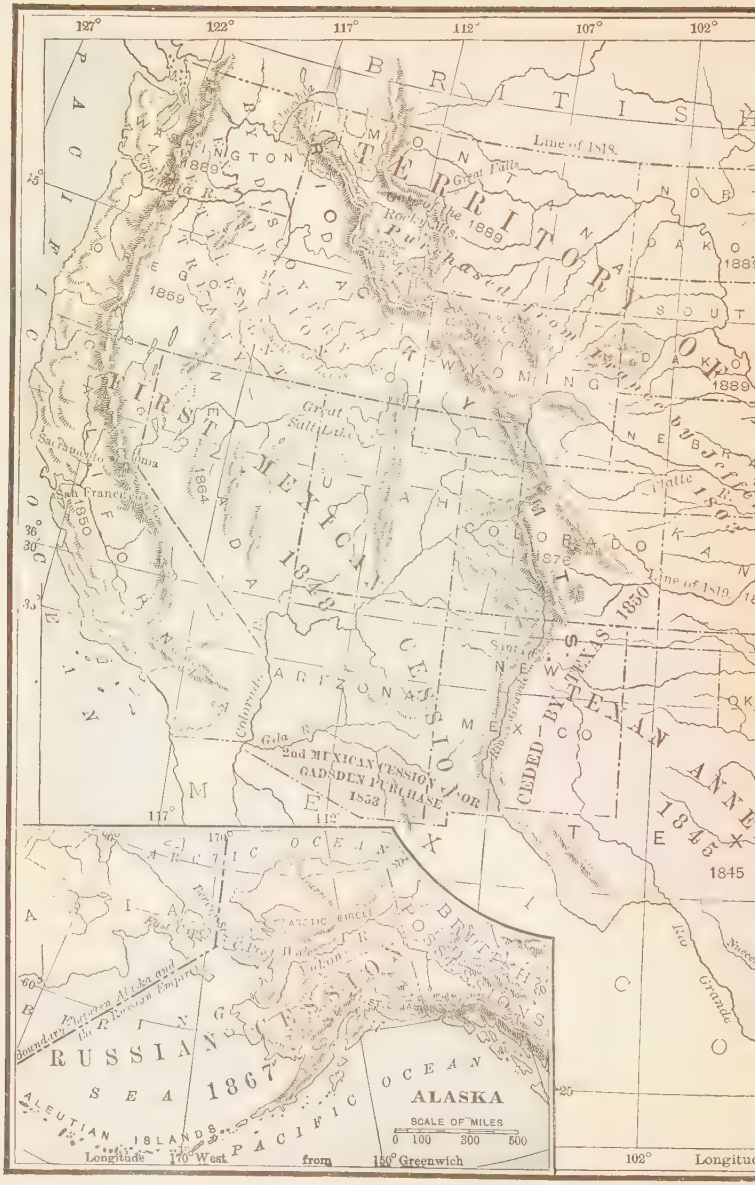
History has already pronounced her verdict that they [the senators who voted "no"] saved the country from a precedent big with danger and vindicated the wisdom of those who made the Senate a court for the trial of impeachments. — FOSTER.

306. Atlantic Telegraph Cable. — The telegraph laid under the Atlantic in 1858 failed after a few hundred messages had been sent. Another cable, laid in 1865, parted in mid ocean. Cyrus W. Field, who was the prime mover in these enterprises, organized another company and successfully laid a cable (June, 1866). The *Great Eastern*, the mammoth steamship, was used for the purpose. Since that time a dozen cables have been laid to Europe, and to-day under the oceans of the world the messages speed on the wings of the lightning to the uttermost parts of the earth.

307. Purchase of Alaska; Treaty with China. — The Russian government suggested to Secretary Seward that it would be willing to sell its American possessions. Our government, glad of the opportunity to secure so valuable a territory, offered seven million two hundred thousand dollars for it. The offer was accepted, and Alaska was transferred to the United States, Oct. 18, 1867.

About five hundred and ninety thousand square miles were added to our domain. Alaska is rich in furs, especially of the seal, and in timber and gold. It was not until 1884 that a territorial form of government was framed.

In the following year (1868) a Chinese embassy under the direction of our former minister to China, Anson Burlingame, arrived to make a treaty with the United States. They were most cordially received, and the Senate ratified (July 16) the treaty drawn up by Secretary Seward. China and the United States agreed to aid each other in promoting between the two countries good will and friendship.



127°
122°
117°
112°
107°
102°
BRITISH
Line of 1818.
TERRITORY
Great Falls
Crest of the Rocky Mts.
1889
Purchased from France by Jefferson
1803
WASHINGTON
1889
OREGON
1859
IDAHO
WYOMING
NEBRASKA
1889
DAKOTA
SOUTH
DAKOTA
1889
FIRST MEXICAN CESSION
1848
Great Salt Lake
UTAH
COLORADO
1876
Platte R.
Line of 1819.
1850
Sacramento
Colonia
San Francisco
1850
1864
ARIZONA
NEW MEXICO
Santa Fe
Rio Grande
Colorado
Gila R.
2nd MEXICAN CESSION FOR GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
CEDED BY TEXAS 1850
TEXAS
ANNE
1845
1845
Rio Grande
PACIFIC OCEAN
MEXICO
ARCTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Yukon R.
Boundary Between Alaska and the Russian Empire
RUSSIAN CESSION
1867
SEA
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS
PACIFIC OCEAN
ALASKA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 300 500
Longitude 170° West from 150° Greenwich
102°
Longitude

TERRITORIAL GROWTH OF THE
UNITED STATES
ON THE AMERICAN CONTINENT
1776 TO THE PRESENT TIME

In the presidential election of 1868 the Republicans nominated General U. S. Grant, who was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Johnson's administration were: 1. The violent quarrel between Congress and the President. 2. Adoption of the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments. 3. Civil Rights Bill, Freedmen's Bureau Bill, Reconstruction Acts, Tenure of Office Act. 4. Impeachment of the President. 5. Proclamation of general amnesty. 6. Laying of the Atlantic cable. 7. Purchase of Alaska. 8. Treaty with China.

Grant's Administration, 1869–1877

308. The *Alabama* Claims. — While important home problems were to be solved, our government did not for an instant forget the part which Great Britain had taken against us in allowing the *Alabama* and other vessels to be built in her ports for the purpose of destroying our shipping. When the claims were first brought to the attention of the government of England in 1863, it positively refused even to consider them. Two events, however, now occurred which caused England to change her mind. War broke out between Germany and France, and England, fearing she might be drawn into the conflict, desired the friendship of the United States. The second event was a message which President Grant sent to Congress, asking for an appropriation to pay the claims of private individuals for losses from the *Alabama* and other cruisers. England at once saw that she would soon have to deal with a debt due to the United States

government instead of to private citizens and that President Grant was in earnest in the matter.

309. Settlement of Difficulties. — England therefore asked for a commission to settle the differences between the countries. This commission met at Washington and concluded a treaty (May 8, 1871). It was agreed:

1. That the Alabama claims should be referred to a commission at Geneva. This commission[1] met at Geneva and decided (Sept. 14, 1872) that Great Britain should pay to the United States fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars in gold.

2. That the fisheries dispute should be referred to a commission. This commission met at Halifax and decided (Nov. 27, 1877) that the United States should pay five million five hundred thousand dollars for the privilege of fishing on Canadian shores for twelve years.

3. That the question of our northwest boundary should be referred to the emperor of Germany. He decided in favor of the United States, giving it "the important archipelago of islands lying between the Continent and Vancouver island."[2]

The truly great result of this *Alabama* question, however, was the adoption of arbitration instead of war for the settlement of differences between nations.

[1] The commission was composed of five members, named by the President of the United States, the queen of England, the king of Italy, the president of the Swiss Confederation, and the emperor of Brazil.

[2] The settlement of this question left us, said President Grant, "for the first time in the history of the United States as a nation without a question of disputed boundary between us and the possessions of Great Britain on this continent."

310. Civil-Service Reform. — The first bill for the reform of the civil service became a law in March, 1871. This led to the appointment of a commission to put the law into force. An important step was thus taken toward securing the appointment of worthy men to office through competitive examinations rather than on the recommendation of a political leader. Not until the Pendleton Bill was passed (1883), however, did civil-service reform become an established policy of our government.

311. The Transcontinental Railroad. — Until four years after the close of the Civil War passage across the plains between the Missouri river and the Rocky mountains led along one of two routes: the Oregon trail by the Platte river valley, or the Santa Fe trail along the Arkansas river to the old town of Santa Fe. The former or northern route was taken by emigrants intending to settle on the Pacific coast, especially in Oregon. The southern or Santa Fe trail was mainly a route of trade by which all the region from Santa Fe to old Mexico was supplied with goods from the eastern states, and in return furs, buffalo skins, gold, and silver were brought to the Mississippi valley. The Civil War had impressed strongly on the nation the necessity of some better means of communication between the East and the great West and California. Two companies were formed to build a railroad from the Missouri to the Pacific. The great work was finished, and the train from the East met the train from the West (May 10, 1869) near Ogden, Utah.

312. The Great Fires of Chicago and Boston. — On Sunday evening, Oct. 8, 1871, a fire broke out in the west division of Chicago and spread with fearful rapidity. It leaped across the Chicago river and until Tuesday morning swept all before it. More than seventeen thousand buildings were destroyed, with a total loss of about two hundred millions of dollars.[1] Not only our nation but foreign countries sent relief to the people of the afflicted city. A little more than a year later (Nov. 9, 1872) the business section of Boston was destroyed by fire. Property to the value of eighty millions of dollars was swept away.

313. The Fifteenth Amendment; Reëlection of Grant. — The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution made the negro a voter, as it provided that no law should be passed to prevent citizens from voting on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. Three fourths of the states having approved it, it was proclaimed March 30, 1870. In the following year all the states that had seceded were again in the Union, with representatives in both houses of Congress.

At the end of his first term of office President Grant was renominated and was elected,[2] defeating Horace

[1] The fire burned everything in an area covering three and one-third square miles, rendering nearly one hundred thousand persons homeless. It is estimated that the indirect loss was two hundred and ninety million dollars. At the same time fearful forest fires swept through the timber districts of Michigan and Wisconsin, causing great loss of life and property.

[2] Henry Wilson of Massachusetts was elected Vice President. Before the electoral vote was cast Horace Greeley died.

Greeley, who had been nominated by the Democrats and liberal Republicans.

314. An Era of Scandals. — The Civil War and the careless and extravagant use of public money developed an era of betrayal of trust by public officials. The city of New York was robbed of millions of dollars by the infamous Tweed and his associates, while the state of New York was despoiled by the Canal Ring, — the country thieves as distinct from the city thieves; government officials[1] planned with distillers in the West to defraud the United States of the revenues on whisky, no less than a million and a half of dollars being stolen in ten months by this Whisky Ring; the company organized to build the Pacific railroad was shown to have secured legislation by bribery; the Secretary of War, Belknap, was impeached for accepting bribes; the Indian agents in the West robbed the Indians and were even aided in their rascalities by those in Washington who should have protected the Indians. It was a dark picture on the eve of the centennial of our independence.

315. The "Salary Grab." — Congress passed a law the last day of the session, March 3, 1873, increasing the pay of senators and representatives from five thousand to seven thousand five hundred dollars a year, at the same time allowing themselves the increase for the entire term, which was to end the following day. This

[1] Eighty-six officials under the national government were implicated in this corrupt affair, including the President's private secretary. Bristow, the honest and brave Secretary of the Treasury, exposed the ring.

law aroused such opposition among the people that it was repealed by the next Congress.[1]

316. The Weather Bureau. — One of the most important events of Grant's administration was the establishment (1870) of the Weather Bureau.[2] This bureau established stations throughout the country and is able to forecast with considerable accuracy the coming of storms, dangerous winds, cold waves, and heavy frosts. By means of signals vessels are warned when gales are expected. The warning that severe frosts and storms might be expected has saved to the farmers and to the shipping interests billions of dollars. Thousands of lives might have been lost at sea were it not for the warning signals displayed along the coast.

317. The Crisis of 1873. — The amazing growth of industries of all kinds after the Civil War and the success of the first transcontinental railway led to the building of railways in all parts of the country. A railroad — the Northern Pacific — was planned to extend from lake Superior to Puget sound. New enterprises

[1] In this bill the salary of the justices of the Supreme Court was increased from eight thousand five hundred dollars to ten thousand five hundred per year for the chief justice; from eight thousand to eight thousand five hundred per year for the associate justices; from twenty-five thousand to fifty thousand per year for the President of the United States. The salary of the Supreme Court justices could not be reduced, as the Constitution provides that their compensation cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The salary of the President also could not be reduced, as he had begun his new term March 4, 1873, and the Constitution provides that his salary shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected.

[2] The organization of the Weather Bureau is chiefly due to General Albert J. Myer, chief signal officer of the army.

were begun on all sides, and an era of the wildest speculation soon developed. Unfortunately at this time (Sept. 18, 1873) a prominent Philadelphia banking house failed. At once a panic followed. Banks were compelled to suspend, the doors of factories were closed, workmen were thrown out of employment, and widespread suffering ensued. The crisis lasted for at least five years and was probably the most severe depression in the history of our country.

318. Financial Legislation. — In 1873 Congress passed a law dropping the silver dollar from the coins to be minted[1] and making gold the only standard of the currency. The silver dollar at this time was worth more than gold and was used very little.[2] Two years later (1875) Congress passed an act declaring that on Jan. 1, 1879, the greenbacks or paper money issued during the Civil War would be redeemed in gold. This paper money had been worth much less than gold. This action caused the price of the greenbacks to rise to the value of gold. In 1878 Congress repealed the act of 1873, practically restoring silver to its former position.[3]

[1] This was called the demonetization of silver, that is, its withdrawal from use as money, as the United States would no longer coin silver dollars. The silver dollar was used in business, but would not be accepted in payment of customs duties, nor in payment of the public debt or the interest thereon.

[2] The silver dollar at this time was worth one dollar and two cents in gold.

[3] This was the so-called Bland-Allison Bill, which required the government to coin not less than two nor more than four millions of dollars monthly. A silver dollar was now worth much less than a gold dollar, and President Hayes vetoed the bill, but it was passed over his veto.

On Jan. 1, 1879, a gold, silver, or paper dollar was accepted interchangeably as of equal value,[1] and the financial credit of the nation was established before the world.

319. The Centennial Exhibition. — In 1876 an international exhibition was held in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, in honor of the hundredth anniversary of our independence. Not only all the states of the Union, but thirty-three foreign governments, sent exhibits that showed the wonderful industrial and social development of the world in the preceding century. About ten millions of people visited the exhibition. Colorado was admitted to the Union this year, and hence is called the "Centennial" state.

320. The Indian Wars. — In 1872 trouble arose with the Modoc Indians of southern Oregon, who had undoubtedly been defrauded by government agents. The Indians went on the warpath, and for a year war was waged in the far West, until the Indian power was broken, and these tribes were removed to Indian Territory. In 1876 the Sioux (Soō) or Dakota Indians were asked to surrender some of their lands and to enter a new reservation. Their leader, Sitting Bull, refused and prepared for war. He was encamped on the Little Big Horn river. In an endeavor to surprise him General Custer separated himself with his regiment from the main body of the army and stole around to the rear of the Indian encampment. But the Indians,

[1] This was called "resumption of specie payments." It was the first time since January, 1862, that a gold dollar did not command a premium.

informed of his movements, suddenly attacked him with overwhelming force, and Custer and his entire command perished. Sitting Bull retreated later into Canada.

321. The Electoral Commission. — At the close of Grant's administration the Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio for President, while the Democrats selected Samuel J. Tilden of New York as their standard bearer. At the close of the polls Tilden was apparently elected by a large majority. The Republicans, however, claimed to have carried certain southern states, which, if true, would elect Hayes. The country was in a turmoil, and at last an electoral commission composed of five justices of the Supreme Court, five senators, and five representatives was appointed. Of the fifteen members eight were Republicans and seven Democrats, and by a party vote of eight to seven Hayes was declared elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Grant's two administrations were:

1. The *Alabama* awards.
2. First law for civil-service reform.
3. Opening of the transcontinental railroad.
4. The great fires in Chicago and Boston.
5. Adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment.
6. The scandals in national and municipal affairs.
7. Establishment of the Weather Bureau.
8. Crisis of 1873.
9. Financial legislation.
10. Centennial Exhibition.
11. Indian wars.
12. The electoral commission.

Hayes' Administration,[1] 1877–1881

322. Withdrawal of Federal Troops from the South; Labor Troubles. — The war had now been finished for twelve years, and in most of the states of the South the southern leaders had been able to regain control of the state governments. Federal troops, however, still remained. President Hayes believed no permanent peace could be secured in the South under such conditions, and he promptly ordered the removal of the troops. In the states of South Carolina and Louisiana the carpetbag governments fell with the withdrawal of the Federal forces, and the South was once more allowed to rule itself.[2]

Rutherford B. Hayes

Serious labor troubles broke out at this time throughout the country among the employees of railroads, caused partly by the reduction of wages. Riots of a most serious nature

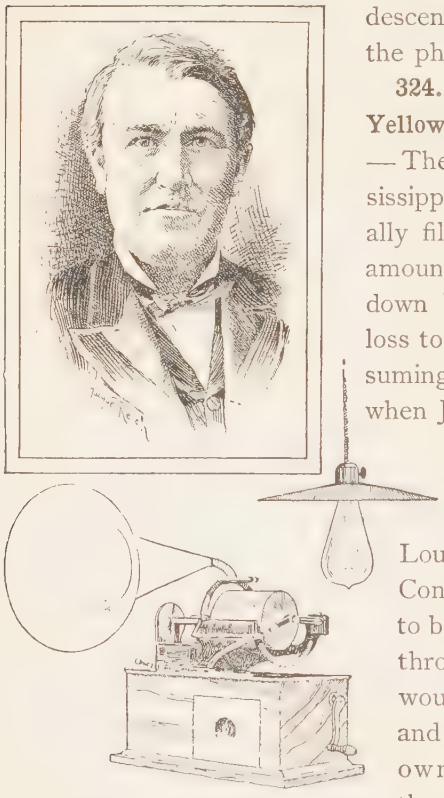
[1] Rutherford B. Hayes was born in Ohio in 1822, was graduated from Kenyon College, and was admitted to the bar. At the outbreak of the Civil War he enlisted and rose to the rank of major general. He represented his district in Congress, and was elected governor of Ohio. He died in 1893.

[2] President Hayes appointed as his Postmaster-General a former Confederate officer.

broke out in Chicago, St. Louis, and Pittsburg, the railroad station and freight houses in the latter city being completely destroyed. The rioters controlled more than six thousand miles of railway. The state authorities of Maryland, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Illinois, believing their force inadequate to quell the trouble, asked the President for aid. The troops at last brought the turmoil to an end, but not until many lives had been lost and millions of dollars' worth of property destroyed. The loss in wages was also very great. The strike was unsuccessful.

323. The Bell Telephone; Edison's Inventions. — Although for many years the sound of the human voice could be transmitted from one point to another by means of a wire or cord, it remained for this administration to see the idea put into practical use. At the Centennial Exhibition a telephone was exhibited. In the following year (1877) a telephone line was put into use between Boston and Salem — a distance of sixteen miles — by Alexander Graham Bell. Another line, operated under the plans of Professor Gray, was erected between Chicago and Milwaukee, a distance of eighty-five miles. These tests showed the practical nature of the telephone, so that it spread rapidly and is now an essential part of our business and, to some extent, our social life. The wire in use for the telephones in the United States alone at the present day would encircle the world eighty times. It is probable that in a few years one may speak from Boston to San Francisco or from New York to London.

At this time Thomas A. Edison began his wonderful career as an inventor. Among the greatest of his inventions are the incandescent electric light and the phonograph.



Edison and his Inventions

324. The Eads Jetties; Yellow Fever in the South. — The mouth of the Mississippi was being gradually filled up by the vast amount of mud brought down by the river. The loss to commerce was assuming vast proportions when James B. Eads, who had designed the bridge across the Mississippi at St. Louis, offered a plan to Congress. He proposed to build jetties or banks through which the river would run with rapidity, and by the force of its own current prevent the sand and mud in the water from settling and filling the channel. Congress voted an appropriation, and the plan was successfully carried out. Large ocean steamers now reach New Orleans with ease.

At this time the South was visited by an appalling visitation of yellow fever. New Orleans and Memphis were the chief sufferers. Aid was sent to the afflicted cities from all parts of the Union.

325. Resumption of Specie Payment. — It will be remembered that Congress voted to pay in gold all the obligations of the United States, Jan. 1, 1879. On that day, therefore, Secretary Sherman was ready to pay all demands in gold. Few, however, desired gold when it was worth no more than silver or greenbacks.[1] Our national credit was now so secure that we were enabled to borrow money to pay off our debts at a much lower rate of interest, thus saving millions of dollars to our treasury.

At the close of Hayes' administration the Republicans nominated James A. Garfield of Ohio, while the Democrats nominated Winfield S. Hancock of New York. Garfield was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Hayes' administration were :

1. Withdrawal of the Federal troops from the South.
2. Labor troubles in the West.
3. Development of the telephone.
4. Eads jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi.
5. Resumption of specie payments.

[1] "When the day (Jan. 1, 1879) came, it was found that the Treasury was fully prepared, and the gold coins which had borne a premium for seventeen years of specie suspension were not now demanded even by those who had been hoarding legal tender notes for that express purpose."

CHAPTER XIV

THE PERIOD OF INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Garfield and Arthur's Administrations, 1881–1885

326. Assassination of the President. — President Garfield[1] had been in office scarcely four months when he was shot in a railway station in Washington by a disappointed office seeker.[2] He lingered until September 19, when he died at Elberon, New Jersey, whither he had been brought to profit by the ocean breezes. The Vice President at once assumed the office of President.[3]

James A. Garfield

[1] James A. Garfield was born in Ohio in 1831 and was graduated from Williams College in 1856. He became a teacher and studied law until the Civil War, when he entered the army and rose to the rank of major general. He was elected to Congress in 1863 and in 1880 was chosen senator, but never took his seat as he was elected President.

[2] Charles J. Guiteau, the assassin, was hanged for the crime.

[3] Chester A. Arthur was born in Vermont in 1830. He was educated at Union College and became a lawyer. He was collector of the port of New York for seven years and in 1880 was elected Vice President.

327. Revision of the Tariff; Civil-Service Bill. — A high tariff had been placed during the war on goods to secure the immense sums of money necessary for military purposes. As these expenditures had ceased, it was thought unwise by many to collect so much money beyond the necessities of the government. It was therefore proposed to reduce the tariff, and a commission was appointed which reported a bill that lowered somewhat the duties on foreign articles. The bill became a law in 1883.

Another bill was passed by Congress in 1883, called the Pendleton Civil-Service Act, which placed the civil service upon a firmer foundation. It was the real beginning of the movement which has grown until, at the present time, over two hundred thousand persons are secure from removal except for cause.

328. The Edmunds Antipolygamy Bill; the Chinese Exclusion Bill. — The growth of the Mormons in Utah and the adjoining states and territories called public attention to the practice of polygamy among them and the necessity of its suppression. A bill to this end became a law, and eight years later the Mormon church abolished polygamy as a practice of their religion.

The overcrowded population of the Asiatic seaboard of China looked with longing eyes to the fair fields of California and began to come in large numbers to that state. As a Chinese laborer worked for low wages and lived in a very frugal manner, the working men of the Pacific coast demanded a law to prevent Chinese from

coming to our country. In response to this demand a law was passed in 1882 prohibiting Chinese immigration for a period of ten years.

329. The Brooklyn Bridge; Cheap Postage. — In 1883 the Brooklyn Suspension Bridge which spans the East river in New York City was completed after thirteen years spent on its construction.[1] At the opening of the bridge (May 24, 1883) President Arthur and the mayor of New York walked across to the opposite side, where they were met by the mayor of Brooklyn.

In 1883 the postage was reduced from three cents to two, for each half ounce. Two years later the rate was fixed at two cents per ounce, the price at the present time. For this small sum a letter will go from the city of New York to Manila in the Philippines, halfway around the globe.

330. The Alien Contract Labor Law; Expositions in the South. — Many corporations found it profitable to send agents abroad to hire foreign workmen to come to this country under contract at a low rate of wages. To prevent this growing evil the Alien Contract Labor Law was passed, forbidding the importation of such contract laborers.

In 1881 a Cotton Exposition was opened in Atlanta, Georgia, and in 1884 New Orleans invited the nations to a World's Exposition. The wonderful development which cotton had effected in the South was shown by

[1] This bridge is eight thousand nine hundred and eighty-nine feet long, one hundred and thirty-two feet above high tide, and cost sixteen millions of dollars.

the enormous exports of that staple.[1] At the same time the coal fields and iron mines had given life to new manufacturing centers like Atlanta, Chattanooga, and Birmingham.

331. The Democrats regain Power. — In the national convention held in 1884 the Republicans nominated James G. Blaine of Maine for President, while the Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland of New York for the same high office. The Democrats were successful, and for the first time since Buchanan a Democrat was seated in the presidential chair.

SUMMARY

The leading events of the Garfield and the Arthur administrations were:

1. Tariff revision and Civil-Service Bill.
2. Antipolygamy Law.
3. Opening of the Brooklyn Bridge.
4. Alien Contract Labor Law.
5. Expositions in the South.

Cleveland's Administration, 1885–1889

332. The Washington Monument and the Statue of Liberty. — The monument to the memory of George Washington was begun at the national capital in 1848, and the work continued for eight years, when it ceased. In 1878 construction was resumed under Lieutenant

[1] In 1784 about one bale of cotton was exported from Charleston, South Carolina. At the present time, about a century and a quarter later, the cotton crop of the United States is ten and one-half million bales, or nearly five billion pounds.

Colonel Casey of the United States engineers. This massive monument was finished in 1885. It rises over the city of Washington to a height of five hundred and fifty-five feet, — the highest monument in the world.

Grover Cleveland

The French Republic, to show its kindly feeling toward the sister republic in America, presented to the United States a bronze Statue of Liberty. This statue, one hundred and fifty-one feet high, was made by the great sculptor Bartholdi. Congress gave Bedloes island, a military post in New York harbor, as a site for the gift. Amid great rejoicing the statue was unveiled Oct. 28, 1886.

333. Important Legislation; the Presidential Succession; the Electoral Count; Interstate Commerce. — From 1792 the succession to the presidency in case of the death of the President and Vice President would pass to the president of the Senate, and on his death to the speaker of the House of Representatives. By the new law, passed in 1886, the succession passes to the members of the cabinet in the order[1] in which the

[1] This order is: (1) Secretary of State, (2) Secretary of the Treasury, (3) Secretary of War, (4) Attorney-General, (5) Postmaster-General, (6) Secretary of the Navy, (7) Secretary of the Interior. The two departments since created are not included under this Act.

departments were established. The chief reasons for the passage of this law were: first, the desire for the continuity in the presidential office of the party that had elected the President,[1] and second, the necessity of preventing the possibility of the country's being without a ruler.[2]

To prevent a repetition of the troubles caused by the disputed election returns of 1876, a bill was passed providing for the counting of electoral votes. By this bill, all votes are legal to which both houses of Congress agree; in a disagreement of the houses, those votes shall be counted which are certified by the governor of the state from which the disputed electoral votes come.

A third law was the passage (1887) of the Interstate Commerce Bill establishing a commission to secure uniform passenger and freight rates on the railroads between states.

334. The Chicago Anarchists. — Throughout the country at this time strikes were very numerous, especially in Chicago, where the workmen demanded a reduction in the hours of labor from ten to eight hours a day. A large meeting was held (May 4, 1886) at Haymarket

[1] If, for instance, the President and Vice President had been Republicans and the president of the Senate was a Democrat, by the death of the two former the entire policy of government would be changed from Republican to Democratic. This was not considered just to the voters of the country.

[2] This was a real danger. When President Garfield died there was neither a president of the Senate nor a speaker of the House of Representatives. Had Vice-President Arthur died before President Garfield, the country would have been without a legal ruler, a condition which is impossible under the new law.

square in Chicago. So violent were the methods suggested by the speakers that the police ordered the crowd to disperse. A bomb was thereupon thrown into the group of policemen and, exploding, killed or fatally wounded seven and injured sixty. The leaders of the outrage were tried and four were hanged.

335. Tariff Discussion. — The United States government at this time was receiving over one hundred million more dollars each year than it needed to pay its lawful debts. President Cleveland believed it to be unwise to take, largely through tariff taxation, so vast an amount of money from the people beyond the requirements of the government. He sent, therefore, a message to Congress recommending the reduction of the revenue by taking off the duties from many of our imports. The House of Representatives was Democratic and passed a bill reducing the duties. The Senate, which was Republican, refused to pass it, and the tariff became the leading issue in the following presidential election. President Cleveland was renominated by the Democrats, while the Republicans chose Benjamin Harrison of Indiana as their candidate, and he was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Cleveland's administration were:

1. The dedication of the Washington Monument and the Statue of Liberty.
2. Important legislation regulating (*a*) the presidential succession, (*b*) the electoral count, (*c*) interstate commerce.
3. Labor strikes and the anarchist troubles in Chicago.
4. The tariff discussion.

Harrison's Administration,[1] 1889–1893

336. Oklahoma. — In 1888 Congress bought from the Creek and Seminole Indians a tract of land about forty thousand square miles in area, which formerly was a part of Indian Territory. This tract was thrown open to settlement April 22, 1889. At noon of that day tens of thousands were waiting in the line for the bugle blast which announced the opening. Thereupon a wild rush took place for farms. Towns sprang up on all sides, and in five years there were a quarter of a million of inhabitants where formerly the prairie stretched with a few cattle grazing upon it.[2]

Benjamin Harrison

337. The Johnstown Flood; Admission of New States. — In a deep valley in western Pennsylvania lies the

[1] Benjamin Harrison, a grandson of President William Henry Harrison, was born in Ohio in 1833. He was graduated from Miami College, studied law, and at the outbreak of the Civil War entered the army, leaving at the close of hostilities with the rank of brigadier general of volunteers. He was later United States senator from Indiana. He was defeated for reëlection to the presidency in 1892 and died March 13, 1901.

[2] Guthrie was established in one day and by nightfall had ten thousand inhabitants.

city of Johnstown with the Conemaugh[1] river flowing through it. The river at its headwater was held back by a dam. The freshets and rains of the spring so weakened the dam that it gave way May 31, 1889. The flood swept villages and towns before it until it struck Johnstown, where it wrought fearful destruction. Thousands of lives and millions of dollars' worth of property were lost; but the country generously came to the aid of the stricken city with donations of food and money.

The territories of the West were anxious to reach the dignity of statehood, and in 1889 North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington were admitted to the Union. In the following year Idaho and Wyoming were admitted, and in 1896 Utah was added to the sisterhood of states.

338. The Pan-American Congress; the New Tariff Bill. — A congress, called the Pan-American,[2] was held in Washington in the autumn of 1889. It was composed of delegates from the Central and South American republics. These delegates traversed the country from the Atlantic to the Pacific viewing our wonderful resources. The congress was called to establish peace relations and business intercourse between the republics of the New World, and resulted in the promotion of a closer political and commercial union between the American peoples.

The defeat of the Democrats resulted in the Republicans gaining control of the presidency, the Senate,

[1] Conemaugh (Kŏn′e-ma).

[2] *Pan* is a Greek word, meaning "all."

and the House of Representatives. They soon (Oct. 1, 1890) passed a law, named the McKinley Bill, which materially increased the duties in some cases, took off many articles from the free list, and added a few to it. It provided for reciprocity or the reduction of duties to countries which granted a similar favor to the United States.

339. New Laws; the Pension Bill; the Sherman Act. — A new pension bill was passed, raising the number of pensioners to almost a million, with an expense to the country of more than one hundred and forty millions of dollars yearly.

A new financial law, called the Sherman Act, was passed in 1890. It provided that the Secretary of the Treasury should buy four and a half million ounces of silver each month if that amount were offered. Payment was to be made in treasury notes that would be legal tender. This silver was not to be coined into dollars[1] until it was needed to redeem any treasury notes that might be presented.

340. The Homestead Strike. — In the summer of 1892 a serious labor trouble arose at the Carnegie steel works at Homestead, Pennsylvania. A band of armed Pinkerton detectives was sent to the works, but was fired on by the strikers and compelled to return. After weeks of the bitterest feeling the strike ended. It had a very important bearing on the country, for in the next presidential election it undoubtedly turned thousands of

[1] The bullion or metal value of the silver dollar at this time was eighty-one cents in gold.

laboring men from the Republican party, which was identified with high tariff protection, to the Democratic party.

A very important step in the promotion of higher education in America was the establishment, in 1889, of the Catholic University at Washington. Courses in theology, law, philosophy, letters, science, and education are given. With the institutions grouped around it and the affiliated colleges throughout the country, the Catholic University has become a great center of learning for the laity, the diocesan clergy, and the religious orders.

The Republicans renominated President Harrison, and the Democrats chose ex-President Cleveland, as their candidate for President. Cleveland was overwhelmingly elected.[1]

SUMMARY

The leading events of Harrison's administration were:

1. The opening of Oklahoma.
2. The admission of new states.
3. The Pan-American Congress.
4. The McKinley Tariff Bill.
5. The new Pension Bill and Sherman Act.
6. The Homestead Strike.
7. Establishment of Catholic University.

Cleveland's Second Administration, 1893–1897

341. The Wilson Tariff; the Columbian Exposition. The Democrats, believing the result of the elections indicated a desire on the part of the people for lower

[1] Among the other events of this administration were:

1. The dispute with Italy resulting from the killing of Italians in the parish jail of New Orleans by a mob.

2. Troubles with Chili over the killing in the streets of Valparaiso of sailors from the war ship *Baltimore*.

3. The celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the inauguration of Washington in New York, April 29, 30, and May 1, 1889.

tariff duties, passed the Wilson Tariff Bill, lowering many duties and putting on the free list much raw material used in manufactures. Among the free goods were lumber, salt, and wool.[1]

To commemorate suitably the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus, a World's Fair was held in Chicago. It was the largest and most beautiful exposition ever known in the world, no less than twenty-seven millions of people attending it. Two years later a great exposition was held in Atlanta. The beautiful buildings and grounds and the interesting exhibits showed the wonderful progress which the South had made since the close of the war.

342. Hawaii. — On Jan. 14, 1893, a revolution was begun in Hawaii to overthrow the existing monarchy. By the aid of the marines from the cruiser *Boston* it was successful. A provisional government was organized which negotiated a treaty of annexation with the United States. This treaty was sent to the Senate by President Harrison but withdrawn by President Cleveland when he took office as President.

On July 4, 1894, the republic of Hawaii was established and was recognized by President Cleveland. Four years later Hawaii was annexed to the United States.

[1] Among the provisions of the bill was a tax of two per cent on incomes which yielded more than four thousand dollars a year. This provision was declared by the United States Supreme Court to be unconstitutional. This bill, despite the declaration of the Democratic platform for a "tariff for revenue only," was essentially a protective tariff measure, and President Cleveland declined to sign it. He did not, however, veto it, and it became a law without his signature.

343. The Bering Sea and Venezuela Questions. — One of the most valuable possessions of Alaska is the seal fisheries. The United States claimed that the purchase of Alaska had given her the right to control the fisheries of Bering sea. England denied this and claimed the right to hunt for seals three miles and more from the shore. The dispute was referred in 1893 to a commission which decided that Great Britain was right, but that the seals should be protected.

A little later (1895) a dispute arose in South America over the boundary between Venezuela and British Guiana. It was believed that Great Britain was trying to deprive Venezuela of territory that belonged to the latter country, especially as gold was supposed to exist in the disputed region. President Cleveland, seeing that Great Britain showed no disposition to arbitrate the matter, believed the Monroe Doctrine should protect the weaker state. He asked Congress to give him power to appoint a commission to find the real facts in the case. Congress so voted and Great Britain soon afterwards arbitrated the question.

344. The Crisis of 1893; the Repeal of the Sherman Act; the Federal Elections Bill. — In 1890 there began a business depression in Europe which would have had an immediate effect on the United States had not the crops, to a certain extent, failed in the countries of Europe. This caused a large export of food products from the United States. Soon, however, European nations were compelled to withdraw the money which they had invested in the United States. At this very

time the silver and tariff questions were agitating the country. As a result President Cleveland had been in his seat hardly three months when a crisis swept through the land. It was believed the large purchase of silver under the Sherman Act was one of the leading causes of the troubles. A special session of Congress was called (1893), and the law was repealed, without preventing the crisis, however.

Immediately following this crisis a great railroad strike occurred in the West. Four thousand workmen, employed by the Pullman Company, struck for higher wages. Riots ensued and the state and national troops were called out. The strike lasted three months, with a loss to all interested of about eighty millions of dollars.

The Federal Elections Bill, commonly called the "Force Bill," which allowed the federal authorities to use, if they desired, military forces at the polls, had been the source of much bitter feeling and strife in the South. It was repealed in 1894, having been on the statute books for twenty-four years.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Cleveland's second administration were

1. The Wilson Tariff Act.
2. The Columbian Exposition.
3. The establishment of the republic of Hawaii.
4. The Bering sea and Venezuela questions.
5. The crisis of 1893 and the repeal of the Sherman Act.
6. The repeal of the Federal Elections Bill.

McKinley's Administration,[1] 1897–1901

345. The Silver Question; the Dingley Tariff. — The chief issue in the presidential campaign of 1896 was the demand of the Democratic party for the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of 16 to 1. According to this plan a silver dollar would weigh sixteen times as much as a gold dollar. William J. Bryan was nominated on this platform. The Republicans opposed the free coinage of silver except by international agreement. They nominated William McKinley, who was elected.

In the beginning of his administration the new President saw the necessity of securing more revenue to meet the needs of the government, as our expenses were far greater than our income. He therefore called a special session of Congress, which passed a tariff act called the Dingley Bill. The principal features of this bill were the placing again of duties on wool; hides, which had been on the free list for a quarter of a century, were again taxed; higher duties were placed on woolens, flax, silks, and linens. Reciprocity was again provided for as well as the regulations against "trusts" or combinations in restraint of lawful trade.[2]

[1] William McKinley was born in Ohio in 1843. He enlisted in the army and served through the Civil War, rising to the rank of major. He was later admitted to the bar and in 1876 was elected to Congress by the Republicans. In 1891 he was elected governor of Ohio and was reëlected in 1893. He was elected President in 1896 and was reëlected in 1900. He died Sept. 14, 1901, from the bullet of an assassin.

[2] The Dingley Bill was so named from the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. It became a law July 24, 1897.

346. The War in Cuba; Destruction of the *Maine*. — From 1868 to 1878 war had existed in Cuba between the Cubans and their Spanish rulers. In 1895 a new revolt broke out, and the waste of life and property so near our shores led many to ask our government to interfere. Our government refused to take this step as we were at peace with Spain, a friendly nation. We even tried, frequently in vain, to prevent armed expeditions from leaving our shores to help the insurgents.

William McKinley

To see that American lives and property were secure, however, the battle ship *Maine* was sent to Havana. On the night of Feb. 15, 1898, the *Maine* was destroyed at her anchorage. Two of her officers and two hundred and fifty-eight of her crew went down with the unfortunate vessel.

A court of inquiry, after investigation, declared its belief that the *Maine* was blown up by a submarine mine. The court did not, however, lay the blame on any one. Spain at once expressed her regret for the sad occurrence and asked for arbitration.

347. Declaration of War against Spain. — The feeling against Spain in the United States, resulting from the

loss of the *Maine*, became so intense that Congress passed (April 19, 1898) resolutions declaring that "the people of Cuba are and of right ought to be free and independent; that it is the duty of the United States to demand that Spain should give up Cuba and withdraw its forces from the island; that the President is directed and empowered to use all the forces of the United States and to call out the militia in order to carry out these resolutions; that the United States disclaims any intention of control over said island except for the pacification thereof and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people." These resolutions caused the Spanish government to give to our minister in Madrid his passports, and April 25 Congress declared war to exist between the United States and Spain.

Admiral Dewey

348. Battle of Manila Bay. — The United States Asiatic Squadron, under Commodore George Dewey, was at this time in the harbor of Hongkong. At once a message was sent to him to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet in the Philippines. Dewey sailed immediately and Sunday morning, May 1, before daybreak, he passed the entrance to Manila bay and slowly drew

near the city. When the sun arose the Spanish fleet was seen off Cavite,[1] a peninsula which is eight miles from Manila, across the bay. Dewey had four cruisers, two gunboats, and a dispatch boat, a fleet superior to the naval force of Spain. The battle began at daybreak, and the American squadron, passing and repassing five times before the Spanish boats, aimed its guns with deadly effect. Every Spanish vessel was destroyed, with large loss of life.

Rear Admiral Sampson

The Americans lost neither a vessel nor a man. Congress gave Dewey a vote of thanks and a sword, and the President appointed him rear admiral. He was later given the highest rank in the navy, — that of admiral.

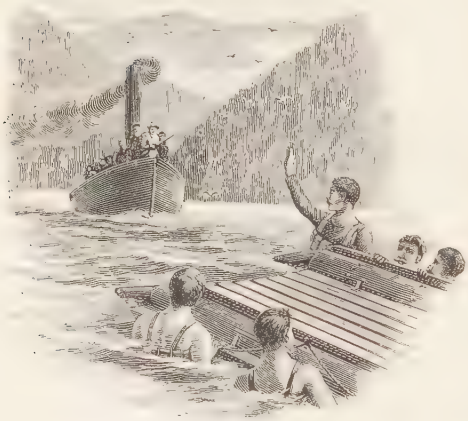
Rear Admiral Schley

349. The Santiago Campaign; Hobson's Brave Exploit.— About this time another Spanish fleet, under Admiral Cervera,[2] left the Cape Verde islands. Its destination was for a long time unknown, but it was at last discovered in the harbor of Santiago. Before this harbor a large fleet of war ships of the United States now gathered.

[1] Cavite (Ca-vee′tay).

[2] Cervera (Ther-veh′rah).

As the entrance to the harbor of Santiago[1] is very narrow, it was thought possible to shut in the Spanish fleet beyond possibility of escape by sinking a vessel, called the *Merrimac,* at the entrance. A brave southerner, Richmond P. Hobson, volunteered to go on this perilous mission. The *Merrimac* entered under a hail of shot and shell from the batteries and was sunk, but not at a point to choke up the channel. Hobson with his seven brave companions was rescued by Admiral Cervera and was treated by him with extreme kindness.



Rescue of Hobson by the Spanish Admiral

350. Battles of Caney and San Juan; Destruction of Cervera's Fleet. — In the meantime our army had landed in Cuba and now drew near the city of Santiago. On July 1 and 2 the Americans attacked the fortified Spanish posts of El Caney[2] and San Juan.[3] After a gallant defense the Spaniards were driven back and took refuge behind the defenses of Santiago.

[1] Santiago (San-tee-ah'go).
[2] Caney (Cah'nay).
[3] San Juan (San Whahn').

The Dewey Arch

On the following Sunday, July 3, Admiral Sampson, the commander of the blockading fleet, sailed on his flagship, the *New York*, to visit General Shafter down the coast, Commodore Schley becoming the ranking

officer of the squadron. Scarcely had Sampson disappeared on the horizon when the Spanish fleet came out of the harbor. The Spanish vessels were no match for the powerful American battle ships with their guns manned by superb marksmen, and every Spanish vessel was quickly destroyed. Admiral Cervera and twelve hundred of his men were made prisoners, while the loss of life on his vessels had been fearful. The American loss was one man killed. Not a vessel was seriously injured. Two weeks later (July 17) the city of Santiago surrendered. Porto Rico was captured by General Miles with practically no resistance.

351. Terms of Peace; War in the Philippines. — The Spanish government now sought terms of peace, and commissioners met in Paris. On December 10, 1898, the treaty was signed. As a result of the war Spain lost Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, and Guam in the Ladrones.[1] For the improvements in the Philippines twenty millions of dollars were paid. The treaty was ratified February 6, 1899.

The Filipinos in the meantime had organized a republic under the dictatorship of Aguinaldo,[2] their military leader. They declined to recognize the right of Spain to sell their country to the Americans, and war finally broke out February 4, 1899, between the Americans and the Filipinos. For several days the Filipinos presented a strong front to the American troops, until Malolos,[3] their capital, fell. They then

[1] Ladrones (Spanish pronunciation, La-dro′nace).

[2] Aguinaldo (Ah-gee-nahl′do).

[3] Malolos (Mah-loh′loce).

broke into small detachments and for a time maintained a species of guerrilla warfare.

352. The Trans-Mississippi Exposition. — An exposition was opened at Omaha, Nebraska, June 1, 1898, which was designed to show the wonderful progress made by the states beyond the Mississippi in fifty years. Representatives of twenty-five Indian tribes showed the customs and methods of living of the red men in the early days on the plains of the West. There were also exhibits of the mineral and industrial wealth of the great commonwealths that have been formed from the lands where four decades before the buffaloes ranged by millions.

353. The Hague Conference. — The czar of Russia invited (August 24, 1898) the nations of the world to a conference, to secure if possible the abolition of war and the reduction of standing armies. In answer to this invitation the nations sent representatives to The Hague, in Holland, where the conference opened May 18, 1899. Many plans were adopted for relieving the horrors of war, and it was decided to establish an International Court of Arbitration, in which fifteen of the greater nations of the world are represented.

354. The Gold Standard Act. — The discussion over the relative merits of gold and silver as the standard of value had been the burning question in the presidential election of 1896. Congress finally took up the matter and passed a bill making the gold dollar the standard of value and providing for "the maintenance at a parity with that standard of all forms of money issued or coined

by the United States." This bill was warmly opposed in both the Senate and House of Representatives, but it became a law March 14, 1900.

355. Freedom of Trade with China. — The leading nations of Europe, in their desire for further colonial territory, secured from China on one pretext or another portions of her territory. It seemed probable that all China would be divided among the European nations, who would probably place heavy customs duties on all goods entering the ports of China under their control. As this would shut out our goods, the United States asked (Sept. 6, 1899) Great Britain, Germany, Russia, France, Italy, and Japan to grant free trade to all the world in the Chinese ports under their control. The nations gave immediate and hearty consent to this request, which secures the so-called "open door" for our trade in China,[1] and in all probability will prevent the partition of the Chinese Empire and its conquest by the armies of Europe. In the presidential election of 1900 President McKinley was reëlected. Theodore Roosevelt was elected Vice President. The Democratic candidate was William J. Bryan.

A leading issue of the campaign was again the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. Another issue was "imperialism." The Democrats maintained that the permanent increase in our military forces and

[1] By a cession signed by the native chiefs and by a treaty with England and Germany we secured (April 17, 1900) Tutuila, with the excellent harbor of Pago-Pago, and a few other islands of the Samoa group.

the establishment of a colonial form of government in the Philippines were not in accord with the spirit of the Constitution. The Republicans demanded a gold standard as opposed to free silver; they declared that as soon as the inhabitants of the Philippines could maintain a stable form of government it would be granted to them. On these issues the Republicans carried the election.

In the following year (1901) a law was passed to increase the standing army of the nation. According to this law the total enlisted force shall not exceed one hundred thousand men. Congress passed at this time another law giving the President power to establish civil government in the Philippine islands.

SUMMARY

The leading events of McKinley's administration were:

1. The Dingley Tariff.
2. The war with Spain and in the Philippines.
3. The Trans-Mississippi Exposition.
4. The Hague Conference.
5. Freedom of trade with China.

McKinley and Roosevelt's Administrations, 1901–5

356. The Pan-American Exposition; Assassination of President McKinley. — In the spring of 1901 the Pan-American Exposition was opened in Buffalo. The purpose of the exposition was to show the development of the states of North, Central, and South America, and to join in bonds of friendship the republics of the New World.

On September 6, while President McKinley was giving a public reception, he was shot by an anarchist.[1] He died September 14 and was buried at Canton, Ohio,

Theodore Roosevelt

while the whole nation grieved the loss of its foremost citizen. Vice President Roosevelt[2] at once assumed the office of President.

[1] Leon F. Czolgosz (Chol'gosh) was executed in the state prison at Auburn, New York, Oct. 29, 1901.

[2] Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York City, Oct. 27, 1858. He served in the legislature of New York, was civil-service commissioner, and Assistant Secretary of the Navy. In 1898 he was elected governor of New York, and two years later Vice President of the United States.

357. The Strike of the Anthracite Coal Miners. — In May, 1902, the miners in the anthracite coal region of Pennsylvania, to the number of almost one hundred and fifty thousand, began a strike to secure shorter hours of labor, an increase of wages, and recognition of the Union of the United Mine Workers. The strike lasted five months, causing great distress throughout the country. To put an end to the widespread suffering of the people, President Roosevelt asked the miners and the mine operators to refer the disputed questions to a commission. The offer was favorably received and the miners returned to work. The report of the Commission was accepted by all and a great step toward peaceful arbitration of all questions between capital and labor had been taken.

358. The Panama Canal. — The earliest Spanish explorers recognized the value of a canal that would pierce the isthmus of Panama and would join the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans. Many years ago a French company began to dig a canal between Panama and Colon, but the enormous cost of the undertaking and the difficulties met in its construction compelled them to stop work. The Congress of the United States at last actively took up the question and voted (1902) to build the canal, buying out the French rights for forty millions of dollars. Panama at this time was one of the states of the republic of Colombia. While the treaty between the United States and Colombia was being considered by the Congress of the latter country, the state of Panama rose in rebellion against Colombia and declared itself an independent

republic. It was at once recognized as such by the United States and by the great nations of the world. Later the republic of Panama gave to the United States control over the zone through which the canal is to be built. In less than ten years it is believed the canal will be open to the commerce of the world.

359. The Department of Commerce and Labor. — So great is the foreign and domestic commerce of the United States that our total trade now reaches, it has been estimated, the enormous sum of nearly thirty billions of dollars. To still further promote the industrial and commercial development of the country, it was thought advisable to create (1903) a national department of commerce and labor. The secretary of this department has a seat in the President's Cabinet. It is believed that this department will greatly aid in advancing the interests of the trade and industry of the country.

360. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition. — It will be remembered (see p. 202) that Napoleon Bonaparte, emperor of France, sold to the United States in 1803 the vast area which had been named Louisiana by La Salle. The territory sold by France stretched from the Mississippi river to the Rocky mountains and from the gulf of Mexico to Canada. This territory was at that time a wilderness with a few fur-trading posts here and there along its great rivers. In this princely domain have since been built up in whole or in part fourteen states and territories, the home of millions of prosperous people.

To commemorate the hundredth anniversary of this great event of Jefferson's administration, the Louisiana

Purchase Exposition was held in St. Louis in 1904. The exposition was the largest the world has ever seen. It covered over 1200 acres and represented an expenditure of fifty millions of dollars. In addition to the states and territories of the Union fifty foreign countries had exhibits or buildings. The exposition showed the extent and the development of the resources of our country as well as the skill of its people in arts and trades.

361. The National Election of 1904. — In 1904 the Republicans nominated for President Theodore Roosevelt, who had filled that high office since the death of President McKinley. Charles W. Fairbanks of Indiana was named for Vice President.

The Democrats chose as their candidate for President Alton B. Parker, Chief Justice of the Court of Appeals of New York. Henry G. Davis of West Virginia was nominated for Vice President.

Among the leading issues of the campaign were the colonial policy of the country, especially in reference to the retention of the Philippine islands, the revision of the tariff, and the need of greater economy in the expenditure of the money of the government. In the election the Republicans were successful.

SUMMARY

Leading events of McKinley and Roosevelt's administrations (1901–1905):

1. Pan-American Exposition.
2. Anthracite coal strike.
3. Panama Canal treaty.
4. Establishment of Department of Commerce and Labor.
5. Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

ROOSEVELT'S ADMINISTRATION, 1905–1909

362. The San Francisco Disaster. — On the morning of April 18, 1906, a violent earthquake shook the central coast region of California for a distance of hundreds of miles. So violent was the shock at San Francisco that thousands of buildings were destroyed, large fissures appeared in the streets, and the pipes supplying the city with water were broken. Fires broke out quickly in many sections of the city and for two days the flames swept onward. Business blocks, libraries, churches, schools, and thousands of homes were destroyed in this conflagration, which is the greatest the country has ever experienced. An area of almost four square miles was devastated, with a loss of hundreds of millions of dollars. From all parts of the country and even from distant Japan generous aid was sent to the stricken city.

363. Admission of Oklahoma. — As early as 1834 Congress set aside a vast tract of country west of the Mississippi river for the use of the Indians. From this great area many states were later formed until in 1888 only Indian Territory remained.

In that year the United States government purchased from the Indian tribes the western portion of this Territory. It was given the name Oklahoma, or Beautiful Country, from the great fertility of its soil. Oklahoma was thrown open to settlement in 1889. (See sec. 336.) Cities quickly arose and within ten years the prosperous Territory had a population of four hundred thousand people.

In 1906 Congress passed an act admitting Oklahoma and Indian Territory into the Union as a state under the name of Oklahoma. Its area is greater than that of all the New England states combined.

364. Important Legislation. — During the session of 1906 Congress passed three important laws, — the Railway Rate Act, the Meat Inspection Act, and the Pure Food Act.

The purpose of the Railway Rate Act is to give greater power to the Federal government in regulating interstate commerce. It requires railway corporations and other common carriers to treat all shippers of goods over their lines with equal fairness. The law forbids the secret rates and rebates by which the trusts to a great extent have been built up.

The Meat Inspection and Pure Food Acts provide for the strict examination and labeling of food products. These laws will raise the standard of our food products, thereby greatly promoting the health of the people.

365. Intervention in Cuba. — At the signing of the treaty of peace with Spain in 1898, Cuba passed under the military control of the United States. In 1901 the Congress of the United States voted [1] to leave the control of Cuba to the people of that island if they would agree to make no treaty with any foreign power that would endanger their independence; to contract no debt for which the current revenue would not suffice; to give to the United States the right to intervene,

[1] This was the so-called Platt Amendment. It was accepted by the Cuban Congress, June 12, 1901.

if necessary, to preserve life, property, or individual liberty; and to give to the United States the naval stations of Guantánamo and Bahía Honda.

These conditions were accepted by Cuba, and the United States formally recognized (May 20, 1902) the new republic of Cuba.

In 1906 a revolution broke out against the government of Cuba, and the president of that country resigned.

The United States thereupon sent a military force to maintain order and to take control of the island until the revolution should end and a new president should be elected.[1]

366. The Hague Peace Conferences. — A peace conference, called by Czar Nicholas II of Russia, met May 18, 1899, at The Hague in Holland. Its purpose was to discuss methods to free nations from the constantly increasing cost of armies and navies by the establishment of an

[1] General José Miguel Gomez, the new president, took his seat January 28, 1909, and the Provisional Government of the United States withdrew from Cuba.

international court of arbitration.[1] So much good was accomplished by this meeting, to which the United States sent representatives (see sec. 353), that the President suggested a second conference, which met at The Hague, June 15, 1907. Forty-four nations were represented. While the conference did not succeed in reducing the armies and the navies of the world, it made provision for the collection of contract debts by peaceful means instead of by the use of an army and navy; it also established a prize court for neutrals, and laid the foundations of an international court of arbitration. Thus a great step forward has been taken toward a peaceful solution of disputes among the countries of the world.[2]

367. The Crisis of 1907; Presidential Election. — In the autumn of 1907 a large trust company in New York City failed, and a crisis as severe as any that has ever befallen the country spread through all parts of the Union.

[1] The first case before The Hague Tribunal was the so-called "Pious Fund." This case arose over the seizure of property belonging to the Roman Catholic Church in California when Mexico owned that territory. The Mexican government had promised to pay six per cent of the value of the seized property annually to the Church. Mexico had failed to pay, however, for many years, and the United States asked for the adjustment of the matter. The Hague Tribunal decided in favor of the United States, and Mexico at once paid the debt.

[2] In 1904 war broke out between Japan and Russia. So many lives were lost in the fearful battles of the war that the President of the United States invited the governments of Japan and Russia to send representatives to a conference. The invitation was accepted, the representatives met at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and a treaty of peace was signed, putting an end to the fearful struggle in the East.

Many banks and trust companies failed, and there was widespread distress in all sections of the country.

In the presidential election of 1908 the Republicans nominated William H. Taft of Ohio for President. The Democrats nominated William J. Bryan of Nebraska.

The United States and its Possessions (in black)

The issues of the campaign were the trusts, imperialism, the protective tariff, and the use of the injunction. The Republicans were successful, and Taft was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Roosevelt's second administration were:

1. The San Francisco disaster.
2. The admission of Oklahoma.
3. The Railway Rate Act.
4. The Meat Inspection Act.
5. The Pure Food Act.
6. Intervention in Cuba.
7. The Hague Peace Conference.
8. The Crisis of 1907.

Taft's[1] Administration, 1909–

368. The Payne Tariff Act. – Believing that the ever-increasing cost of living was due in part to the high tariff duties of the Dingley Act (see sec. 345) there arose a widespread desire among the people for a downward revision of the tariff. Shortly after his inauguration, therefore, President Taft called a special session of Congress. After a long debate in the House of Representatives and in the Senate, the Payne Tariff Act became a law (Aug. 5, 1909). The new tariff reduced the rates on some articles but increased it on many others, among them cottons and woolens.[2] An important new feature of the Payne Tariff Act is the corporation tax, which places a federal tax of one per cent

William H. Taft

[1] William Howard Taft was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, September 15, 1857. He was graduated at Yale University and was admitted to the bar of his native state in 1880. He was appointed a judge of the United States Circuit Court in 1892 and became first civil governor of the Philippine islands in 1901. In 1904 he was appointed Secretary of War. In 1908 he was elected President of the United States.

[2] Among the more important decreases in duties were those on boots and shoes, bituminous coal, iron ore, rough lumber, print paper, refined sugar, agricultural implements, and leather products. The important

upon the net earnings or incomes of corporations, if these incomes exceed five thousand dollars per year.

369. Two Great Celebrations. — The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition was opened June 1, 1909, at Seattle, Washington. The object of this exposition was to show the wealth of the Pacific coast and Alaska territory and the future development of the commerce across the Pacific with the Orient. The exposition was beautifully situated on a wooded hill overlooking two wide lakes, with Mount Rainier and Puget sound in the distance. Among the interesting exhibits were those of Alaska,[1] Japan, and the Philippines, as well as those of the states of the great northwest, with their agricultural, mineral, and forest wealth.

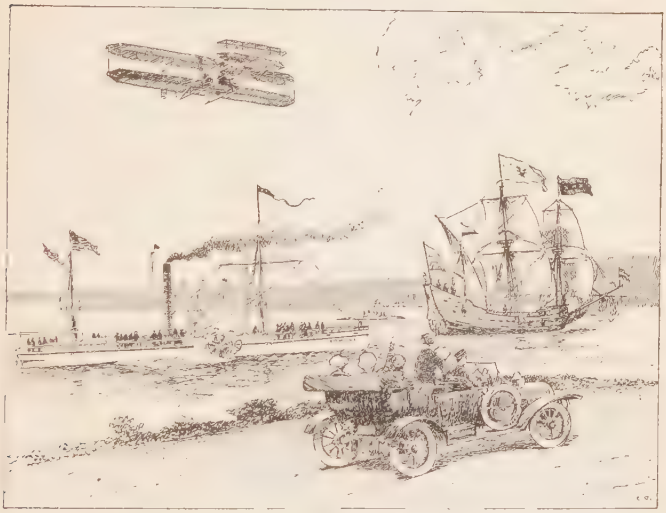
The Hudson-Fulton Celebration, held in New York City and the Hudson river counties (Sept. 25–Oct. 9, 1909), commemorated two great events. The first was the three hundredth anniversary of the exploration of the Hudson river by Henry Hudson in the Dutch ship *Half Moon* in 1609. (See sec. 55.) The second event commemorated was the one hundredth anniversary of the first successful application of steam navigation by Robert Fulton in the *Clermont* in 1807. The people of Holland built an exact reproduction of the *Half Moon*, which was

advances in duties were on cotton, woolen, and silk goods, and on luxuries. Works of art more than twenty years old and hides of cattle were placed upon the free list.

[1] The Alaska exhibit showed that that territory was rich not only in gold, but in fisheries, agriculture, timber, and furs. The exposition was held on the grounds of the University of Washington, and seven of the beautiful buildings, being built of permanent material, became a part of the university.

presented to the American people for the celebration. The little *Clermont* was also reproduced, and was greeted as she sailed up the river between the war ships of nine nations.[1]

One of the most interesting events of the celebration was the flight of Wilbur Wright in his aëroplane over the



The Hudson-Fulton Celebration

river from Governor's island to Grant's tomb and back, a distance of twenty miles in thirty-three minutes.

370. Important Legislation; the Railway Law; the New Postal Savings Bank Law. A new railway law was passed in 1910, which indicates the strength of the movement, on the part of the American nation, to control

[1] The nations represented were Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria, Italy, the Netherlands, Argentina, Mexico, and Cuba.

the highways of travel and trade for the benefit of the people. The new railway law establishes a Court of Commerce to hear and decide cases that arise from the decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission. (See secs. 333 and 364.) It also regulates to a certain extent the rates that may be charged by common carriers, that is, by railroad, telegraph, telephone, express, and sleeping-car companies. In connection with the Railroad Rate Law of 1906 (see sec. 364) the law will further aid in protecting the people from injustice in rates by public-service corporations.

Another law that will have, it is hoped, a great influence upon the American people is the Postal Savings Bank Law. Under this law post offices will be selected to serve as depositories for savings. Any person over ten years of age may open an account, which cannot, however, exceed five hundred dollars. It is believed that this law will promote thrift and aid in maintaining a high standard of living among the people.

371. Admission of New Mexico and Arizona. The area included in New Mexico and Arizona was first visited by Europeans in 1536, when Cabeza de Vaca traversed it. Three years later it was visited by the Franciscan Friar Marcos. (See sec. 25.) In 1540 Coronado led his famous expedition, which was sent by the viceroy of Mexico to explore the country and found settlements under the flag of Spain. Upon the revolt of Mexico from Spain it was made (1824) a territory of the republic of Mexico. It became a part of the United States in 1848 and two years later received a territorial

form of government. In 1863 the western part of the territory was formed into the territory of Arizona. In 1910 Congress passed the Enabling Act, admitting the territories of New Mexico and Arizona, and in 1912 President Taft issued his proclamations admitting them to the Union.

372. The National Census of 1910. — In 1910 the thirteenth national census of the United States was taken and showed a population of 93,402,151. If the inhabitants of the Philippine islands, Guam, Tutuila, and the Canal zone are included, the total number of people under our flag in 1910 was 101,100,000. The following table shows the population at each decade:

1790	3,929,214
1800	5,308,438
1810	7,239,881
1820	9,658,453
1830	12,866,200
1840	17,069,453
1850	23,191,876
1860	31,443,321
1870	38,558,571
1880	50,155,783
1890	62,622,250
1900	76,303,387
1910	93,402,151

***373. Land Laws and Conservation of Natural Resources.** — It has always been the policy of our government to aid the development of the country by granting to colonists the opportunity of securing homes on the public lands of the West. In 1862 the Homestead Act was passed. It is the greatest of our land acts. Under this act a colonist could

secure 160 acres of land free of cost. Five years of residence on the land, with its cultivation and improvement, were necessary to secure the title. As a result of this act hundreds of thousands of colonists went west and built up the great commonwealths between the Mississippi river and the Rocky mountains. No less than forty million acres of land were given away under this act.

The rapid growth of the West under the Homestead Act is one of the most astonishing facts in history. Cities and towns sprang up in all the western section, territories were organized and quickly became states, railroads were built, millions of bushels of wheat and corn were sent to the eastern states and to Europe; where but a few years before the bison had roamed, were now to be seen the homes of millions of happy and prosperous American citizens.

The passing of the public land area, however, has called the attention of the country to the necessity of preserving our natural resources. By the Reclamation Act of 1902 Congress provided for the building of great dams and ditches to irrigate the arid regions of the West. The projects now pending will irrigate over 900,000 acres.

While the arid area in America is great, the area that has too much water is even greater. The bogs, swamps, and marshes of the United States are equal to one twenty-fifth of its entire area. If these swamps were drained, they would give land of the richest value equal in extent to Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois.

These are but a few of the projects that underlie the great conservation movement.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS

SECTIONS 1-20. Who were the Northmen? Find their home on the map. Describe the voyage of Leif Ericson. Were there any lasting results from these voyages? What was the condition of Europe in the fifteenth century? Tell of the routes to the Indies. Why was a new route necessary? What knowledge of the East did Europe possess at this time? Marco Polo and his book In what country was Columbus born? Under what flag did he sail? Why did he wish to sail westward? The great journey of Columbus. How many voyages did he make? John Cabot and his voyages. What country secured a claim to America from his discoveries? What was the Line of Demarcation? How did Portugal secure Brazil? What did Vasco da Gama's voyage prove? The name of America. Who discovered a water route from the Atlantic to the Pacific? Describe Magellan's great voyage. Which of the discoverers were Italian? What religion did they profess? Trace on the map the routes of Columbus, Cabot, Cabral, Magellan, and Vasco da Gama.

21–37. What was the object of Ponce de Leon's voyage? Why was Florida so named? Cortés and Mexico. Tell about De Ayllon's expedition. De Soto and his journey. With what great river is his name associated? Tell about Coronado, De Narvaez, De Vaca, and Father Mark. Which is the oldest city in the United States? Under what flag did Verrazano sail? Who was Cartier, and where did he explore? What was the first permanent French settlement in America? Champlain and his great explorations. Where did the French settle in Florida? Were they successful? Tell of Frobisher, Drake, and Gilbert. Under what flag did they sail? Describe the Raleigh colonies. Were they successful? Where did Gosnold and Pring explore?

38–42. What religious orders attempted to convert and civilize the Indians in Florida? Tell about the Huron missions and the Jesuits. Where did Father Ménard found a mission? Describe the Maine missions and the work of Father Rale.

43–46. Why were the Indians so named? Describe their appearance. Find on the map the principal Indian families or groups. What was the clan? the totem? Habits and industries of the Indians. Tell about wampum. What did the white man learn from the Indian?

47–54. What territory was granted by charter to the London Company? to the Plymouth Company? What were some of the leading features of

the charter? For what is Jamestown noted? Why was it so named? John Smith and the Jamestown colony. Who were the Cavaliers? The introduction of slavery. Tell of the establishment of representative government. Was this important? What caused the Bacon rebellion?

55–61. To what nation did Henry Hudson belong? Under what flag did he sail? Describe his voyage. What was he trying to find? What great river did he explore? The Dutch West India Company. What did the Dutch name the country? Where were the first Dutch settlements? Tell about the purchase of Manhattan. The patroons. Tell about Peter Stuyvesant and his relations with the Swedes and English. How did the English finally obtain this province? Why was it named New York? Who was Thomas Dongan? Describe his first legislative assembly and his Charter of Liberties. What was the Leisler rebellion?

62–63. Why was New Jersey so named? Who first settled it? Describe the grant to Berkeley and Carteret. East and West Jersey. Where was the first English settlement? Who were the Quakers? When was New Jersey united to New York? When did it become a separate royal province?

64–72. Who were the Pilgrims? Why did they come to America? The *Mayflower* at Plymouth. Describe the relations between the Pilgrims and the Indians. What was the town meeting? What finally became of the Plymouth colony? Who founded the Massachusetts Bay colony? Where was the first settlement in this colony? Describe the founding of Boston. Roger Williams and the Puritans. Describe the New England confederacy. What was the result of "King" Philip's War? When did the colonies of Massachusetts bay and Plymouth become one province? Was religious freedom allowed in these colonies?

73 74. Describe the grant to Gorges and Mason. Tell of the first settlements in New Hampshire. With what colony was New Hampshire frequently united? When did it become a royal colony? By whom was Londonderry settled? Name an early settlement in Maine. With what colony was Maine joined? When was it finally separated?

75–80. What title did the Dutch have to Connecticut? Describe the grant to Lord Say and Lord Brooke. The migration to Connecticut. What caused it? What towns were founded? What is the importance of the Connecticut constitution? Describe the New Haven colony. The Pequot War. What was the result of this war? Governor Andros and the charter.

81 86. Describe the position of Catholics in England. What did Lord Baltimore wish to do? The Maryland charter. Where was the first settlement? Describe the Toleration Act. What was the Clayborne rebellion? What happened to Maryland when William and Mary ascended the throne of England?

87–89. Who was Roger Williams? What was his purpose in founding Providence? Religious toleration. Tell about the other settlements in Rhode Island.

90–91. Where was the first settlement in Delaware? By whom was it made? Tell about the Dutch and Delaware. Describe the English conquest of Delaware.

92–94. To whom was Carolina granted. Describe Locke's Grand Model. When was the province divided?

95–96. How did Penn secure his land in America? What does Pennsylvania mean? Describe the first settlement. Penn and the Indians.

97–99. What was Oglethorpe's purpose in founding Georgia? Describe the trouble with Spain. The founding of Savannah. Was Oglethorpe's plan successful? How did Georgia become a royal colony?

100–103. Who first explored the West? Find on the map the French missions. Describe Father Marquette's exploration of the Mississippi. Who was La Salle? Tell about his wonderful journey. What did he name the country? Who founded New Orleans? With what great city is Cadillac's name connected? What part of the country did the French claim? What great rivers did they hold?

104–118. How many wars were there between the French and English in America? What was the cause of King William's War? Had it any lasting results? When did it end? What was the result of the War of the Spanish Succession? By what other name is it known? What was the third war between the French and the English? When did the last war begin? Trace on the map the French forts. The Ohio Company. What was the importance of Fort Duquesne? What city now stands on its site? Describe Washington's first military experience. What was the Albany convention? Tell of the expulsion of the Acadians. Describe the fall of Fort William Henry. When did the English prospects become brighter? What was the result of the battle on the Plains of Abraham? Show on the map the possessions of England in 1763. What did Pontiac try to do? What was the Quebec Act?

119–123. Which were the charter colonies? the proprietary colonies? the royal colonies? What was the difference in the three forms of government?

124–145. What was the direct cause of the Revolutionary War? Give the leading features of the Navigation Acts, the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts. When and where was the First Continental Congress held? When was the battle of Lexington and what were its results? When was the Second Continental Congress? Tell about Montgomery at Quebec. Describe the battle of Bunker Hill. What was the Declaration of Independence? What were the results of the battles of Long Island, Trenton, and Princeton? Who was Robert Morris?

146–163. What aid did France render us? Who were Lafayette, Rochambeau, Pulaski, and Steuben? What was the importance of Burgoyne's surrender? Describe the treason of Arnold. Tell about Cornwallis and Greene in North Carolina. The surrender of Yorktown; its results. When was the treaty of peace signed? What was the Northwest Territory? Where was the new Constitution framed? What were some of its chief features?

164–166. What geographical divisions are there in the United States? Describe the effect of the physical features on the settlement of the country. Tell about the resources of the United States.

167–177. Where was Washington inaugurated? Where was the national capital? What city became the capital in 1791? What important financial measures were adopted? Who took a leading part in these measures? Who invented the cotton gin? Why was this an important invention? Tell about "Citizen" Genêt. Why was Jay's treaty unpopular?

178–182. Of what party was Adams the candidate? What were the X, Y, Z papers? Tell about the trouble with France. Why did France expect us to aid her? What were the Alien and Sedition Laws? What was the significance of the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions? What was the difference between the Federalists and the Republicans?

183–191. To what party did Jefferson belong? What was the greatest event of his administration? Why did Napoleon desire to sell to the United States the territory of Louisiana? Tell about Lewis and Clark's expedition. What difficulty arose between England and France? Describe the Embargo and Non-Intercourse Acts. Tell about Fulton's great invention. What action did Congress take on the slavery question at this time?

192–203. How did the wars between England and France affect us? What was the Tecumseh conspiracy? Tell about the battle of Tippecanoe. What were the causes of the War of 1812? What was the objective point of the war? Tell about Hull's surrender. The *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*. Describe the battles of Chippewa and Lundys Lane. Tell of McDonough's great victory. Who won the battle of lake Erie? Describe the burning of Washington. When was the battle of New Orleans? Who led the American forces to victory? What were the results of the war? What did the Hartford convention aim to do? What was its chief result?

204–209. What was Monroe's administration called? What territory did we acquire during his presidency? Give a sketch of the history of Florida up to the time of its purchase by us. What was the Missouri Compromise? What is the Monroe Doctrine? What caused it to be proclaimed? Tell about Lafayette's visit. Emigration to the West.

210–211. What happened in the election of 1824? The tariff question. Tell about the Erie canal and its results. Where was the first railroad in America?

212–217. What was President Jackson's policy in regard to office-holders? Why did he end the United States Bank? South Carolina and nullification. Tell about Webster and Hayne. How did the Democrats differ from the Whigs in regard to the doctrine of states' rights?

218–223. What caused the crisis of 1837? What financial measure did the government adopt? Who were the Mormons? Tell about the development of the express business.

224–229. How long did Harrison live after his inauguration? Who succeeded to the presidency? Tell about the Webster-Ashburton treaty. What was the cause of the Dorr rebellion? The electric telegraph. Tell about the annexation of Texas.

230–245. What was the Oregon question? Give the cause of the Mexican War. What were the principal battles? What territory was ceded to the United States as a result of this war? What states and territories have been made from the ceded section? What was the Wilmot Proviso? Tell about the discovery of gold. By what party was Taylor elected?

246–248. What compromise did Clay propose in 1850? Tell about the Fugitive Slave Law. What was the influence of *Uncle Tom's Cabin?* What was the Gadsden Purchase?

249–253. Describe the provisions and results of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. Tell about Perry and Japan. Who were the Know-Nothings?

254–259. What was the effect of the Dred Scott decision? What was the cause of the crisis of 1857? What was John Brown's raid? What were the results of the election of 1860? Tell about the beginnings of secession. Which was the first state to secede from the Union?

260–281. How many states seceded? What advantages in respect to the war had the North? What advantages had the South? What slave states remained in the Union? What part of Virginia refused to secede? Where was the first Confederate capital? What city later became the capital? Tell about the battle of Bull Run. What was the blockade? The *Trent* affair. Describe McClellan's peninsular campaign. Give an account of the battle of Cedar mountain and the second battle of Bull Run. Who won the battle of Antietam? Tell about the battle of Fredericksburg. Describe the battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. Who captured Fort Henry and Fort Donelson? Tell about the battle of Shiloh. Who led the expedition against New Orleans? Who won at Murfreesboro?

282–298. When was the Emancipation Proclamation issued? Describe its provisions. What was the result of the battle of Chancellorsville? Describe the battle of Gettysburg. Who captured Vicksburg? Describe the battles of Chattanooga and Chickamauga. Who became general in chief of the Union armies at this time? Describe the battles of the Wilderness. Tell about Sherman's march to the sea. When did General Lee surrender? What did the war settle? When was President Lincoln assassinated?

299–307. What was Johnson's plan of reconstruction? What was the Thirteenth Amendment? What caused the contest between the President and Congress? What was the Fourteenth Amendment? What was the result of the impeachment of the President? Tell about the Atlantic cable. From what nation was Alaska purchased? What was the Homestead Act?

308–321. What were the *Alabama* claims? How were they settled? What is meant by civil-service reform? Describe the building of the transcontinental railroad. What was the Fifteenth Amendment?

What was the "Salary Grab"? The Weather Bureau. Describe the crisis of 1873. What was the financial legislation of this time? For what purpose was the electoral commission appointed?

322-325. Describe the withdrawal of the Federal troops from the South. Tell of the invention of the telephone and the electric light. What does "resumption of specie payment" mean?

326-331. How long was President Garfield in office before his assassination? Tell about the revision of the tariff and the Civil-Service Bill. What was the Edmunds Antipolygamy Bill? What was the purpose of the Chinese Exclusion Bill? Describe the provisions of the Alien Contract Labor Law.

332-356. What are the provisions of the Presidential Succession Act, of the Interstate Commerce Law, and of the Chinese Exclusion Bill? Tell about Oklahoma. Describe the celebration of the Washington Centennial. What were the provisions of the Sherman Silver Purchase and Coinage Act? Describe the McKinley Tariff Bill. Tell about the secret ballot. What great exposition was held at this time? What was the cause of the crisis of 1893? Describe the provisions of the Wilson Tariff Bill. What was the Venezuela question? Tell about the republic of Hawaii. Describe the Dingley Tariff Bill. What was the cause of the Spanish-American War? Describe the battle of Manila bay. Tell about the destruction of the Spanish fleet off Santiago. What was the result of the war? Give the provisions of the Gold Standard Act. What does the "open door" in China mean? What was the purpose of the Pan-American Exposition? When and where was President McKinley assassinated? Who succeeded him?

357-364. What great strike began in 1902? What was the cause of it? What was its effect upon the country? How was the strike settled? Who first recognized the value of a canal across the isthmus of Panama? Who began to build the first canal there? What did Congress vote to do on the canal question in 1902? What action did Panama take at this time regarding Colombia? What territory did Panama cede to the United States? What step was taken in 1903 to promote the development of the country? What is the new department called? Who sold Louisiana to the United States in 1803? What was the extent of Louisiana at that time? How many states and territories have been erected in this domain? Why was the Louisiana Purchase Exposition held? What did this Exposition show? Who were the candidates of the two great parties in 1904? What were the chief issues in this campaign? What great disaster occurred in 1906? What new state was admitted in this year? What important laws were passed by Congress in Roosevelt's administration?

TABLE OF THE PRESIDENTS

No.	President	State	Term of Office	By what Party elected
1	George Washington	Virginia	Two terms; 1789–1797	Unanimously
2	John Adams	Massachusetts	One term; 1797–1801	Federalists
3	Thomas Jefferson	Virginia	Two terms; 1801–1809	Democratic-Republicans
4	James Madison	Virginia	Two terms; 1809–1817	Democratic-Republicans
5	James Monroe	Virginia	Two terms; 1817–1825	Democratic-Republicans
6	John Quincy Adams	Massachusetts	One term; 1825–1829	House of Representatives
7	Andrew Jackson	Tennessee	Two terms; 1829–1837	Democrats
8	Martin Van Buren	New York	One term; 1837–1841	Democrats
9	William H. Harrison	Ohio	One month; 1841	Whigs
10	John Tyler	Virginia	3 yrs. 11 mos.; 1841–1845	Whigs
11	James K. Polk	Tennessee	One term; 1845–1849	Democrats
12	Zachary Taylor	Louisiana	1 yr. 4 mos.; 1849–1850	Whigs
13	Millard Fillmore	New York	2 yrs. 8 mos.; 1850–1853	Whigs
14	Franklin Pierce	New Hampshire	One term; 1853–1857	Democrats
15	James Buchanan	Pennsylvania	One term; 1857–1861	Democrats
16	Abraham Lincoln	Illinois	One term and 6 wks.; 1861–1865	Republicans
17	Andrew Johnson	Tennessee	3 yrs. 10½ mos.; 1865–1869	Republicans
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Illinois	Two terms; 1869–1877	Republicans
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio	One term; 1877–1881	Republicans
20	James A. Garfield	Ohio	6 mos. 15 dys.; 1881	Republicans
21	Chester A. Arthur	New York	3 yrs. 5 mos. 15 dys.; 1881–1885	Republicans
22	Grover Cleveland	New York	One term; 1885–1889	Democrats
23	Benjamin Harrison	Indiana	One term; 1889–1893	Republicans
24	Grover Cleveland	New York	One term; 1893–1897	Democrats
25	William McKinley	Ohio	One term and 6 mos. of 2d; 1897–1901	Republicans
26	Theodore Roosevelt	New York	3 yrs. 6 mos., 1st term; 1901–1905 2d term; 1905–1909	Republicans
27	William H. Taft	Ohio		Republicans

TABLE OF STATES

No.	Name of State	Date of Settlement	By whom Settled	Date of Admission	Square Miles	Population in 1790	Population in 1910
1	**Delaware**[1]	1638	Swedes	1787	2,050	50,996	202,322
2	**Pennsylvania**	1683	English	1787	45,215	434,373	7,665,111
3	**New Jersey**	1617	Dutch	1787	7,815	184,139	2,537,167
4	**Georgia**	1733	English	1788	59,475	82,548	2,609,121
5	**Connecticut**	1633	English	1788	4,990	238,431	1,114,756
6	**Massachusetts**	1620	English	1788	8,315	378,717	3,366,416
7	**Maryland**	1634	English	1788	12,210	319,728	1,295,346
8	**South Carolina**	1670	English	1788	30,570	249,073	1,515,400
9	**New Hampshire**	1623	English	1788	9,305	141,899	430,572
10	**Virginia**	1607	English	1788	42,450	748,308 including W. Va.	2,061,612
11	**New York**	1623	Dutch	1788	49,170	340,120	9,113,614
12	**North Carolina**	1663	English	1789	52,250	393,751	2,206,287
13	**Rhode Island**	1636	English	1790	1,250	69,110	542,610
14	Vermont	1724	English	1791	9,565	85,416	355,956
15	Kentucky	1774	English	1792	40,400	73,077	2,289,905
16	Tennessee	1769	English	1796	42,050	35,791	2,184,789
17	Ohio	1788	Americans	1803	41,060		4,767,121
18	Louisiana	1700	French	1812	48,720		1,656,388
19	Indiana	1702	French	1816	36,350		2,700,876
20	Mississippi	1716	French	1817	46,810		1,797,114
21	Illinois	1682	French	1818	56,650		5,638,591
22	Alabama	1702	French	1819	52,250		2,138,093

[1] The heavy-faced type indicates the thirteen original states.

TABLE OF STATES

No.	Name of State	Date of Settlement	By whom settled	Date of Admission	Square Miles	Population in 1790	Population in 1910
23	Maine	1625	English	1820	33,040	96,540	742,371
24	Missouri	1719	French	1821	69,415		3,293,335
25	Arkansas	1670	French	1836	53,850		1,574,449
26	Michigan	1670	French	1837	58,915		2,810,173
27	Florida	1565	Spanish	1845	58,680		752,619
28	Texas	1685	French	1845	265,780		3,896,542
29	Iowa	1833	Americans	1846	56,025		2,224,771
30	Wisconsin	1669	French	1848	56,040		2,333,860
31	California	1769	Spanish	1850	158,360		2,377,549
32	Minnesota	1819	Americans	1858	83,365		2,075,708
33	Oregon	1811	Americans	1859	96,030		672,765
34	Kansas	1854	Americans	1861	82,080		1,690,949
35	West Virginia		English	1863	24,780	(See Va.)	1,221,119
36	Nevada	1850	Americans	1864	110,700		81,875
37	Nebraska	1847	Americans	1867	77,510		1,192,214
38	Colorado	1859	Americans	1876	103,925		799,024
39	North Dakota	1857	Americans	1889	70,795		577,056
40	South Dakota	1857	Americans	1889	77,650		583,888
41	Montana	1861	Americans	1889	146,080		376,053
42	Washington	1845	Americans	1889	69,180		1,141,990
43	Idaho	1862	Americans	1890	84,800		325,594
44	Wyoming	1867	Americans	1890	97,890		145,965
45	Utah	1847	Americans	1896	84,970		373,351
46	Oklahoma	1889	Americans	1906	70,430		1,657,155
47	New Mexico	1582	Spanish	1912	122,580		327,301
48	Arizona	1580	Spanish	1912	113,020		204,354

TABLE OF TERRITORIES AND POSSESSIONS

	Square Miles	Population in 1910
Alaska	590,884	64,356
Hawaii	6,449	191,909
District of Columbia	70	331,069
Philippine Islands[1]	127,853	7,635,426[2]
Porto Rico	3,600[3]	1,118,012
Guam	175[3]	11,973[3]
Tutuila Islands[1]	73[3]	6,780[3]
Canal Zone[1]	448	85,604[3]

[1] Not included in national census of 1910. [2] Census of 1903. [3] Estimated.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

In Congress, July 4, 1776

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.[1]

We hold these truths to be self-evident: — That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms

[1] The original copy of the Declaration of Independence is kept in the Department of State in Washington. The Declaration was adopted July 4, 1776, and was signed by the members representing the thirteen states Aug. 2, 1776. John Hancock, whose name appears first among the signers, was president of the Congress.

to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measure.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity; and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing Declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed, and signed by the following members:

JOHN HANCOCK

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Josiah Bartlett
William Whipple
Matthew Thornton

MASSACHUSETTS BAY

Samuel Adams
John Adams
Robert Treat Paine
Elbridge Gerry

RHODE ISLAND

Stephen Hopkins
William Ellery

CONNECTICUT

Roger Sherman
Samuel Huntington
William Williams
Oliver Wolcott

NEW YORK

William Floyd
Philip Livingston
Francis Lewis
Lewis Morris

NEW JERSEY

Richard Stockton
John Witherspoon
Francis Hopkinson
John Hart
Abraham Clark

PENNSYLVANIA

Robert Morris
Benjamin Rush
Benjamin Franklin
John Morton
George Clymer
James Smith
George Taylor
James Wilson
George Ross

DELAWARE

Cæsar Rodney
George Read
Thomas M'Kean

MARYLAND

Samuel Chase
William Paca
Thomas Stone
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton

VIRGINIA

George Wythe
Richard Henry Lee
Thomas Jefferson
Benjamin Harrison
Thomas Nelson, Jr.
Francis Lightfoot Lee
Carter Braxton

NORTH CAROLINA

William Hooper
Joseph Hewes
John Penn

SOUTH CAROLINA

Edward Rutledge
Thomas Hayward, Jr.
Thomas Lynch, Jr.
Arthur Middleton

GEORGIA

Button Gwinnett
Lyman Hall
George Walton

Resolved, That copies of the Declaration be sent to the several assemblies, conventions, and committees, or councils of safety, and to the several commanding officers of the continental troops; that it be proclaimed in each of the United States, at the head of the army.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

Preamble

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.—LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

Section 1.—Congress

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.[1]

Section 2.—House of Representatives

The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and

Election of Members.

the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained

Qualifications.

to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union,

[1] The term of each Congress is two years. It assembles on the first Monday in December and "expires at noon of the fourth of March next succeeding the beginning of its second regular session, when a new Congress begins."

according to their respective numbers,[1] which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.[2] The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative: and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

Apportionment.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority[3] thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker[4] and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Officers. Impeachment.

Section 3. — Senate

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Number of Senators: Election.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at

[1] The apportionment under the census of 1900 is one representative for every 193,291 persons.

[2] The word "persons" refers to slaves. This paragraph has been amended (Amendments XIII and XIV) and is no longer in force.

[3] Governor.

[4] The Speaker is one of the representatives; the other officers — clerk, sergeant-at-arms, postmaster, doorkeeper, etc., — are not.

the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive[1] thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

Classification.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

Qualifications.

The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

President of Senate.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Officers.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Trials of Impeachment.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Judgment in Case of Conviction.

Section 4. — Both Houses

The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.[2]

Manner of electing Members.

[1] Governor.

[2] This is to prevent Congress from fixing the places of meeting of the state legislatures.

Meetings of Congress.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Section 5. — The Houses separately

Organization.

Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Rules.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Journal.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Adjournment.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Section 6. — Privileges and Disabilities of Members

Pay and Privileges of Members.

The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation[1] for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

[1] Seventy-five hundred dollars a year, and twenty cents for every mile of travel each way from their homes at each annual session. There is also an allowance of one hundred and twenty-five dollars for stationery and newspapers.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Prohibitions on Members.

Section 7. — Method of passing Laws

All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Revenue Bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

How Bills become Laws.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Resolutions, etc.

Section 8. — Powers granted to Congress

The Congress shall have power:

Powers of Congress.

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal,[1] and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions.

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively

[1] Letters granted by the government to private citizens in time of war, authorizing them, under certain conditions, to capture the ships of the enemy.

the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,[1] and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; — And

Implied Powers.

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Section 9. — Powers forbidden to the United States

Absolute Prohibitions on Congress.

The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.[2]

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus[3] shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder[4] or ex-post-facto law[5] shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

[1] The District of Columbia.

[2] This refers to the foreign slave trade. "Persons" means "slaves." In 1808 Congress prohibited the importation of slaves. This clause is, of course, no longer in force.

[3] An official document requiring an accused person who is in prison awaiting trial to be brought into court to inquire whether he may be legally held.

[4] A special legislative act by which a person may be condemned to death or to outlawry or banishment without the opportunity of defending himself which he would have in a court of law.

[5] A law relating to the punishment of acts committed before the law was passed.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Section 10. — Powers forbidden to the States

Absolute Prohibitions on the States.

No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Conditional Prohibitions on the States.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships-of-war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. — EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

Section 1. — President and Vice-President

The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Term.

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

Electors.

[[1] The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the

Proceedings of Electors and of Congress.

[1] This paragraph in brackets has been superseded by the Twelfth Amendment.

choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.]

Time of choosing Electors.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.[1]

Qualifications of President.

No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Vacancy.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

Salary.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation[2] which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Oath.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

[1] The electors are chosen on the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November, preceding the expiration of a presidential term. They vote (by Act of Congress of Feb. 3, 1887) on the second Monday in January following for President and Vice-President. The votes are counted, and declared in Congress on the second Wednesday of the following February.

[2] The President now receives seventy-five thousand dollars a year; the Vice-President, twelve thousand dollars.

Section 2. — Powers of the President

The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Military Powers.

Reprieves and Pardons.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Treaties.

Appointments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Fill Vacancies.

Section 3. — Duties of the President

He shall from time to time give to the Congress information[1] of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement

Message.

[1] The President gives this information by sending a message to Congress at the opening of each session. Washington and John Adams read their messages in person to Congress. Jefferson, however, sent a written message to Congress by his private secretary, and this custom has since been followed.

between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Convene Congress.

Section 4. — Impeachment

The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

Removal of Officers.

ARTICLE III. — JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

Section 1. — United States Courts

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation[1] which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Courts established.

Judges.

Section 2. — Jurisdiction of United States Courts

The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of another State;[2] — between citizens of different

Federal Courts in General.

[1] The chief justice of the Supreme Court receives thirteen thousand dollars a year; the associate justices, twelve thousand five hundred dollars.

[2] But compare the Eleventh Amendment.

States; — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Supreme Court.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Trials.

Section 3. — Treason

Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

Treason defined.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

Punishment.

ARTICLE IV. — RELATIONS OF THE STATES TO EACH OTHER

Section 1. — Official Acts

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Section 2. — Privileges of Citizens

The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

Fugitives from Justice.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

Fugitive Slaves.

No person[1] held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Section 3. — New States and Territories

Admission of States.

New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

Territory and Property of United States.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section 4. — Protection of the States

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

[1] "Person" here includes slave. This was the basis of the Fugitive Slave Law. It is now superseded by the Thirteenth Amendment.

ARTICLE V.—AMENDMENTS

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

How proposed.

How ratified.

ARTICLE VI.—GENERAL PROVISIONS

All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the confederation.

Public Debt.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Supremacy of Constitution.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

Official Oath.

Religious Test.

ARTICLE VII. — RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.[1]

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE
JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

MASSACHUSETTS
NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

CONNECTICUT
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

NEW YORK
ALEXANDER HAMILTON

NEW JERSEY
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLEY
WILLIAM PATERSON
JONATHAN DAYTON

PENNSYLVANIA
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBERT MORRIS
GEORGE CLYMER
THOMAS FITZSIMONS
JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS

DELAWARE
GEORGE READ
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.
JOHN DICKINSON
RICHARD BASSETT
JACOB BROOM

MARYLAND
JAMES M'HENRY
DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER
DANIEL CARROLL

VIRGINIA
JOHN BLAIR
JAMES MADISON, JR.

NORTH CAROLINA
WILLIAM BLOUNT
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT
HUGH WILLIAMSON

SOUTH CAROLINA
JOHN RUTLEDGE
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER

GEORGIA
WILLIAM FEW
ABRAHAM BALDWIN

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

[1] There were sixty-five delegates chosen to the convention: ten did not attend; sixteen declined or failed to sign; thirty-nine signed. Rhode Island sent no delegates.

AMENDMENTS

Religion, Speech, Press, Assembly, Petition.

ARTICLE I.[1] — Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

Militia.

ARTICLE II. — A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Soldiers.

ARTICLE III. — No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Unreasonable Searches.

ARTICLE IV. — The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Criminal Prosecutions.

ARTICLE V. — No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor to be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. — In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury

[1] These amendments were proposed by Congress and ratified by the Legislatures of the several States, pursuant to the fifth article of the Constitution. The first ten were offered in 1789 and adopted before the close of 1791. They were for the most part the work of Madison. They are frequently called the Bill of Rights, as their purpose is to guard more efficiently the rights of the people and of the states.

of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Suits at Common Law.

ARTICLE VII. — In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

Bail, Punishments.

ARTICLE VIII. — Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Reserved Rights and Powers.

ARTICLE IX. — The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. — The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Suits against States.

ARTICLE XI.[1] — The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against any of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.[2] — The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate; —

[1] Proposed in 1794; adopted in 1798.
[2] Adopted in 1804.

the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Method of electing President and Vice-President.

ARTICLE XIII.[1] — *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Slavery abolished.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.[2] — *Section 1.* All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are

[1] Adopted in 1865.
[2] Adopted in 1868.

citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Negroes made Citizens.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.[1] — *Section 1.* The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Negroes made Voters.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

[1] Adopted in 1870.

LEADING DATES IN CONNECTION WITH THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

(*Dates in italics to be memorized*)

1000 (about). The voyages of the Northmen.

1453. Fall of Constantinople (closing of trade routes).

1492. *Columbus discovers the New World.*

1493. Demarcation line of the Pope.

1497. *The Cabots discover the mainland of North America.*

1507. The name "America" suggested by Waldseemüller.

1513. Ponce de Leon discovers Florida.

Balboa discovers the Pacific ocean.

1519. Cortés conquers Mexico.

1521. Magellan discovers the Philippine islands.

1524. Verrazano's voyage.

1525. Gomez visits the Hudson river.

1535. Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence river.

1539. De Soto begins his expedition.

1540. Coronado's expedition.

1558. Accession of Elizabeth.

1565. *The Spaniards settle St. Augustine, the oldest city in the United States.*

1578. Drake in the Pacific.

1582. The Spaniards found the city of Santa Fe.

1583. Gilbert on North Atlantic coast.

1588. Defeat of the Armada (beginnings of English colonization).

1607. *The English settle Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in America.*

1608. *The French found Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America.*

1609. The Hudson river is explored by Henry Hudson for the Dutch.

1610. Hudson explores Hudson's bay for England.

1614. *The Dutch take possession of New Netherland, later called New York.*

1619. *The first lawmaking assembly in America meets in Jamestown, Virginia.*

Negro slavery is introduced into Virginia.

1620. *The Pilgrims land at Plymouth.*

The *Mayflower* compact.

1626. The Dutch purchase Manhattan island from the Indians.
1630. The settlement of Boston.
1634. Settlement of St. Marys, Maryland.
1636. Settlement of Providence by Roger Williams.
1637. The Pequot War.
1639. The Connecticut constitution.
1642. Beginning of civil war in England.
1643. The first New England Confederation.
1649. *The passage of the Religious Toleration Act in Maryland.*
Execution of Charles I of England.
1660. The English Restoration.
1664. New Netherland is captured by the English; New Amsterdam becomes New York.
The union of the New Haven and Connecticut colonies.
1665. The "Duke's laws," of New York.
1669. The French begin the exploration of the West.
1670. Settlement of Charleston, South Carolina.
1673. Jolliet and Father Marquette begin their famous journey.
1675. "King" Philip's War.
1676. The Bacon rebellion in Virginia.
1682. La Salle explores the Mississippi river.
1683. Governor Dongan calls the first legislative assembly in New York.
William Penn settles Philadelphia.
1688. Flight of James II of England.
1689. King William's War (1689–1697).
1692. The Salem witchcraft.
1699. The founding of Louisiana.
1701. Settlement of Mobile by the French.
1702. Queen Anne's War (1702–1713).
1704. First newspaper in America (*Boston News Letter*).
1713. Treaty of Utrecht (Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson bay ceded to England).
1718. The French settle New Orleans.
1733. The English settle Georgia.
1744. King George's War (1744–1748).
1754. The last or fourth French and Indian War (1754–1763).
The Albany Convention.
1755. The defeat of Braddock.
1758. The English take Fort Duquesne.
1759. *The English under Wolfe capture Quebec.*
1761. Otis' speech on writs of assistance.

1763. *Treaty of Peace. Canada ceded to Great Britain.*
Pontiac's War.
1765. The Stamp Act passed by Parliament.
The Stamp Act Congress (Patrick Henry's resolutions).
1766. Repeal of the Stamp Act.
Declaratory Act.
1767. The Townshend Acts (colonial union).
1769. Steam engine invented.
1770. The Boston Massacre.
1773. The Boston Tea Party.
1774. *The First Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia* (September 5).
The Five Intolerable Acts.
1775. *Battles of Lexington and Concord* (April 19).
Washington appointed commander in chief (June 15).
Battle of Bunker Hill (June 17).
1776. *Declaration of Independence* (July 4).
1777. *Surrender of Burgoyne* (October 17).
1778. *France acknowledges the independence of the United States* (February 6).
The French alliance.
1781. *Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown* (October 19).
Articles of Confederation ratified.
1783. *Treaty of Peace with Great Britain* (September 3).
1786. Annapolis Convention.
1787. *The Constitution adopted by the Federal Convention.*
Ordinance of the Northwest Territory.
1788. The states accept the Constitution.
1789. *The beginning of our government under the Constitution.*
1789–1791. First ten amendments (Bill of Rights).
1789–1797. *Washington President.*
1789. Formation of the cabinet.
Revenue tariff imposed.
1790. First census.
1792. Captain Gray enters the Columbia river.
1793. *The cotton gin invented by Whitney.*
Neutrality proclamation.
1794. The Whisky Rebellion.
1795. Jay's Treaty with Great Britain.
1797–1801. *John Adams President.*
1798. The X, Y, Z papers.
The Alien and Sedition Laws.
Eleventh Amendment (suits against states).
Kentucky and Virginia resolutions.
1799. Death of Washington.
Peace with France.
1800. The city of Washington becomes the capital of the nation.
1801–1809. *Thomas Jefferson President.*
1801. War with Tripoli.

1803. *Purchase of Louisiana* (beginning of territorial expansion).
1804. Lewis and Clark expedition.
Twelfth Amendment (election of President and Vice President).
1807. The Embargo (national power over commerce).
Fulton's steamboat (August 11).
1808. Importation of slaves forbidden.
1809. Non-Intercourse Act.
1809–1817. *James Madison President.*
1811. Battle of Tippecanoe.
1812. *War against Great Britain* (neutral commerce and impressment).
1814. Peace treaty with Great Britain signed.
Hartford Convention.
The British capture Washington.
1815. Jackson defeats British at New Orleans (January 8).
1815–1824. Era of good feeling.
1816. First Protective Tariff Act.
1817–1825. *James Monroe President.*
1818. First Seminole War.
1819. The purchase of Florida.
First steamship crosses the Atlantic.
1820. *The Missouri Compromise* (national prohibition of slavery).
1823. *The Monroe Doctrine.*
1824. High protective tariff established.
Lafayette visits the United States.
1825–1829. *John Quincy Adams President.*
1825. The Erie Canal opened.
1828. The first railroad.
The Tariff of Abominations.
1829–1837. *Andrew Jackson President.*
1830. Great debate between Webster and Hayne.
1831. Beginning of the Abolition movement.
1832. President Jackson vetoes the United States Bank Bill.
New Tariff.
Nullification in South Carolina.
1833. Compromise Tariff.
Chicago founded.
1834. McCormick's reaper.
1835. Second Seminole War.
Texas declared her independence of Mexico.
1837–1841. *Martin Van Buren President.*
1837. Great business crisis.
1839. Beginning of the express business.
1840. First line of steamships between Europe and America.
Establishment of independent treasury and subtreasuries by the national government.
1841–1845. *William Henry Harrison President* (1841).

John Tyler President (1841–1845).

1842. Ashburton Treaty.
New tariff.
Dorr Rebellion.

1844. The electric telegraph invented.

1845. Annexation of Texas.
Discovery of ether.

1845–1849. *James K. Polk President.*

1845. Texas admitted to the Union.

1846. The Oregon question settled.
The sewing machine invented.
War declared against Mexico.
New revenue tariff.

1847. City of Mexico captured.

1848. Peace treaty with Mexico signed (February 2).
Discovery of gold in California.

1849–1853. *Zachary Taylor President* (1849–1850).
Millard Fillmore (1850–1853).

1850. The Omnibus Bill.
Fugitive Slave Law.

1852. Rise of the Know-Nothing party.

1853–1857. *Franklin Pierce President.*

1853. Gadsden Purchase.

1854. Perry's treaty with Japan.
Kansas-Nebraska Act (repeal of Missouri Compromise).
Struggle for Kansas begun.
The Ostend Manifesto.
Origin of the Republican party.

1857–1861. *James Buchanan President.*

1857. *Dred Scott decision* (slavery restrictions annulled).
Great business crisis.
New tariff.

1858. First Atlantic cable.
The Lincoln-Douglas Debate.
Silver discovered in Nevada.

1859. John Brown's raid.

1860. Election of Lincoln.
Secession of South Carolina (December 20).
Establishment of the Southern Confederacy (Feb. 4).
Jefferson Davis elected President of the Confederacy.
Morrill tariff.

1861–1865. *Abraham Lincoln President.*

1861. Fall of Fort Sumter.
Battle of Bull Run (July 21).
The Trent affair.

1862. The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* (March 9).

1863. *The Emancipation Proclamation* (January 1).
Battle of Gettysburg (July 1–3).
Fall of Vicksburg (July 4).

1865. *Lee surrenders* (April 9).
President Lincoln assassinated (April 14).

1865–1869. *Andrew Johnson President.*

1865. *The Thirteenth Amendment* (slavery forbidden).

1866. Laying of the Atlantic cable.

1867. Reconstruction Acts passed (Congress asserts its power).
Tenure of Office Act.
Purchase of Alaska.
1868. Impeachment of President Johnson.
The Fourteenth Amendment (citizenship defined).
1869–1877. *Ulysses S. Grant President.*
1869. The Pacific Railroad completed.
1870. Weather Bureau established.
Fifteenth Amendment (negro suffrage).
Reconstruction completed.
1871. The great fire of Chicago.
Treaty of Washington.
1872. The great fire of Boston.
Alabama claims settled.
1873. Business crisis.
1875. The Whisky ring.
1876. Telephone and electric light exhibited at Centennial Exhibition.
1877. The Electoral Commission.
1877–1881. *Rutherford B. Hayes President.*
1877. Withdrawal of troops from the South.
Resumption of specie payment.
1881–1885. *James A. Garfield President* (1881).
Chester A. Arthur President (1881–1885).
1881. Assassination of President Garfield.
1882. The Edmunds Bill.
1883. Civil Service Reform Commission.
Reduction in letter postage.
1885–1889. *Grover Cleveland President.*
1885. Civil Service Reform.
1886. Presidential Succession Act.
1887. Interstate Commerce Act (legislation on railroads).
1888. New tariff.
Introduction of Australian ballot.
1889–1893. *Benjamin Harrison President.*
1889. Opening of Oklahoma.
Pan-American Congress.
1890. Admission of Wyoming with full woman suffrage.
McKinley Protective Tariff.
Sherman Silver Purchase Act.
1891. International Copyright Act.
1892. Chinese Exclusion Law.
1893–1897. *Grover Cleveland President.*
1893. The Columbian Exposition.
Great business crisis.
Bering Sea Commission.
Repeal of the Sherman Silver Purchase Act.
1894. Labor Day made a national holiday.
1896. Admission of Utah.
Venezuela question settled.
1897–1901. *William McKinley President.*
1897. The Dingley Tariff.
1898. Destruction of the *Maine* (February 15).

1898. *War with Spain declared* (April 25).
Battle of Manila (May 1).
Battle of Santiago (July 3).
Annexation of Hawaii (July 7).
1899. Treaty of peace with Spain ratified (February 6).
1900. Gold Standard Act.
1901. Pan-American Exposition.
1901–1905. *William McKinley President* (1901).
Theodore Roosevelt President (1901–1905).
1901. Assassination of President McKinley.
1902. Anthracite coal strike.
The Pacific cable to Manila.
1903. Department of Commerce and Labor established.
1904. Treaty with Panama.
Cession of the Canal Zone to the United States.
Chinese Exclusion Act renewed.
1905–1909. *Theodore Roosevelt President.*
1906. The San Francisco disaster.
Admission of Oklahoma.
Railway Rate Regulation Act.
Pure Food and Meat Inspection Act.
Intervention in Cuba.
1907. The Second Hague Conference.
The Crisis of 1907.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

I. The Great Navigators

The Northmen

1. Voyages and settlements.
2. Leif Ericson and Vinland.
3. Results of the Norse voyages.

Europe in the Fifteenth Century

1. Importance of the period.
2. Conditions leading to exploration.
   - *a.* Progress of education.
   - *b.* Increase of geographical knowledge.
   - *c.* Development of commerce.
   - *d.* Need of new routes of commerce.
   - *e.* Religious zeal.
3. Trade between Europe and Asia.
   - *a.* The Genoese route.
   - *b.* The Venetian route.
4. Interference of the Turks.
5. Adventures of Marco Polo.

Christopher Columbus

1. Birth and early education.
2. His ideas of the earth.
3. His religious zeal.
4. At court of Portugal.
5. At court of Spain.
6. Assistance received.

Voyage of Columbus

1. His fleet.
2. Difficulties of the voyage.
3. Changed course of Columbus.
4. Hopeful signs.
5. Discovery of land.
6. Further discoveries.
7. Belief of Columbus as to new land.
8. Reception at home.
9. Later voyages.
10. Las Casas and the Indians.
11. Results in Europe.
    - *a.* Commerce.
    - *b.* Colonies.
    - *c.* Wars.
    - *d.* Industrial life.

- **Voyages of the Cabots**
  1. Discovery of North America.
  2. Voyage of Sebastian Cabot.
  3. Extent of English claims resulting from these voyages.
- **Portuguese Enterprise**
  1. Vasco da Gama.
  2. The route to India.
  3. Cabral and Brazil.
  4. Effects of Da Gama's voyage on the fortunes of Columbus.
- **Division of the World by the Pope**
  1. Reason for the division.
  2. Religious beliefs of the early great discoverers.
- **Vespucius and South America**
- **How America was named**
- **Further Discoveries**
  1. Balboa and the South sea or Pacific ocean.
  2. Magellan's first voyage around the world.
     - *a*. The five vessels.
     - *b*. The cruise along South America.
     - *c*. Discovery of the Strait.
     - *d*. Naming the Pacific.
     - *e*. Discovery of the Ladrones.
     - *f*. Discovery of the Philippines.
     - *g*. Death of Magellan.
     - *h*. Return of the *Victoria* to Spain.
     - *i*. Results.

II. The Explorers

- **Spanish Explorations**
  1. Ponce de Leon.
     - *a*. The magic fountain.
     - *b*. Discovery of Florida.
  2. Cortés.
     - *a*. Arrival in Mexico.
     - *b*. Sinking of the ships.
     - *c*. The Aztecs.
     - *d*. Conquest of Mexico.
  3. De Ayllon's expedition to Virginia.
  4. De Narvaez.
     - *a*. Expedition to Florida.
     - *b*. Cabeza de Vaca.
  5. Coronado.
     - *a*. Father Mark.
     - *b*. The expedition.
     - *c*. Cañon of the Colorado.
     - *d*. "Seven cities of Cibola."
     - *e*. The Zuñi pueblos.
     - *f*. Santa Fe.

Spanish Explorations (*continued*)

- 6. De Soto.
  - *a.* Conquest of Florida.
  - *b.* Reaches the Mississippi.
  - *c.* De Pineda.
  - *d.* Rio de Espíritu Santo.
- 7. Extent of Spanish possessions.
- 8. Claims of Spain.
- 9. Motives of Spain.
  - *a.* Religious.
  - *b.* Gold seeking.
  - *c.* Love of adventure.

French Explorations

- 1. Verrazano.
  - *a.* Francis I of France.
  - *b.* The voyage.
  - *c.* The description of the coast.
- 2. Cartier.
  - *a.* Discovery of the St. Lawrence.
  - *b.* Second voyage.
  - *c.* Montreal.
  - *d.* Newfoundland fisheries.
- 3. De Monts.
  - *a.* Acadia.
  - *b.* Port Royal.
  - *c.* St. Sauveur.
- 4. Champlain.
  - *a.* "Father of New France."
  - *b.* Founds Quebec, first permanent French settlement in America.
  - *c.* Discovers lakes Champlain, Ontario, and Huron.
  - *d.* Defeats the Iroquois.
  - *e.* Results of this defeat.
- 5. The French in Florida.
  - *a.* Ribaut and Port Royal, South Carolina.
  - *b.* Laudonnière and Fort Caroline, Florida.
  - *c.* Menendez destroys Fort Caroline.
  - *d.* Menendez founds St. Augustine for Spain.
  - *e.* De Gourgues's revenge.
  - *f.* Failure of French colonization in Florida.
- 6. Claims of France.
- 7. Motives of France.
  - *a.* Fisheries.
  - *b.* Fur trade.
  - *c.* Religious zeal.
  - *d.* Missionary enterprise.
  - *e.* Territory for France.

English Explorations

1. English lack of interest.
2. Frobisher and the Northwest Passage.
3. Drake.
   - *a.* His voyage.
   - *b.* New Albion.
   - *c.* Second circumnavigation of the world.
4. Sir Humphrey Gilbert.
   - *a.* His charter.
   - *b.* Reasons for the expeditions.
   - *c.* Three voyages.
   - *d.* Newfoundland.
5. Davis. Discovery of Strait.
6. Sir Walter Raleigh.
   - *a.* First attempt at colonization. Roanoke.
   - *b.* Gold seekers, not colonists.
   - *c.* Second attempt. Croatoan.
   - *d.* War between England and France. The Armada.
   - *e.* Results of colonizing effort.
     - (1) Potato.
     - (2) Tobacco.
   - *f.* Name of Virginia.
7. Gosnold and Cape Cod.
8. Pring and Weymouth.
9. Claims of England.
10. Motives.
    - *a.* Territory.
    - *b.* Spirit of adventure.
    - *c.* Rivalry with Spain.
    - *d.* Beginning of English colonization spirit.

Results of Spanish, French, and English Explorations at the End of the Sixteenth Century

Permanent Settlements by the Spanish and French

III. The Early Missionaries

The Early Missionaries

1. In Florida.
   - *a.* The Jesuits.
   - *b.* The Franciscans.
2. In New France.
   - *a.* The Récollets, or Franciscans.
   - *b.* The Jesuits.
3. The Huron missions.
4. The Ottawa missions.
5. The Maine missions.
6. The zeal of the missionaries.
7. Their sufferings and death.

IV. The Indians

The Indians

1. Reason for the name.
2. Personal appearance.
3. The Indians of the West.
4. The Pueblo Indians.
5. The Cliff Dwellers.
6. The Indians of the East.
7. The so-called mound builders.
8. Social condition.
   - *a.* Dwellings.
   - *b.* Food.
   - *c.* Implements and weapons.
   - *d.* Habits and mode of travel.
   - *e.* Cruelty in war.
   - *f.* Patience in suffering.
   - *g.* Position of women.
   - *h.* Character.
   - *i.* Civilization.
9. Religion.
10. Organization.
    - *a.* Family groups.
    - *b.* Clan.
    - *c.* Totem.
    - *d.* Sachem.
    - *e.* Tribe.
    - *f.* Wampum.
11. Number of Indians.
12. Leading Indian families.
    - *a.* Algonquin.
    - *b.* Iroquois.
    - *c.* Mobilian (Muskoghean).
    - *d.* Siouan.
    - *e.* Shoshonean.
    - *f.* Pueblos.
    - *g.* Caddoan.
    - *h.* Esquimaux.
    - *i.* Athabaskan.

V. Permanent Colonial Settlements

Virginia

1. The charter.
2. London and Plymouth companies.
3. Extent of the grant.
4. Provisions of the charter.
5. The Popham colony in Maine.
6. Settlement at Jamestown, first permanent English settlement in America.

Virginia (*continued*)

7. Period of distress.
8. Lord Delaware and the second charter.
9. Captain John Smith and Pocahontas.
10. Governor Dale.
11. Tobacco culture and its effects.
12. Introduction of slavery.
13. Indentured servants.
14. The third charter.
15. Representative government.
16. First representative assembly.
17. Loss of charter. Governor Berkeley.
18. The navigation laws.
19. Virginia a royal colony.
20. Bacon's rebellion.
21. Period of oppression.

New Netherland

1. Verrazano and Gomez at the Hudson river.
2. Hudson explores the river.
3. The name of the river.
4. The Dutch take possession of New Netherland.
5. The position of Holland in the world's commerce
6. Settlement of Manhattan.
7. Purchase of Manhattan.
8. The patroons.
9. Peter Stuyvesant.
10. The English seize the colony.
11. It is named New York.
12. The "Duke's laws."
13. Governor Dongan and the Charter of Liberties.
14. The first American Congress.
15. Leisler's rebellion.
16. Royal colony.

New Jersey

1. Settlement by the Dutch.
2. Claimed by the English.
3. East and West Jersey.
4. Settlement of Elizabeth and Newark.
5. The Quakers.
6. Jersey united.
7. Royal colony.

Massachusetts; Plymouth Colony, 1620

1. The Pilgrims in England and Holland.
2. The Pilgrims and the *Mayflower*.
3. The *Mayflower* compact.
4. Landing at Plymouth.

Massachusetts; Plymouth Colony, 1620 (*continued*)

5. Treaty with the Indians.
6. Captain Myles Standish.
7. The town meeting.
8. Absorbed by the Massachusetts Bay colony.

Massachusetts; Massachusetts Bay Colony, 1630

1. The Puritans settle Salem.
2. Settlement of Boston.
3. Religious disturbances.
4. Roger Williams.
5. The New England confederation.
6. Persecution of the Quakers.
7. "King" Philip's War.
8. Salem witchcraft.
9. Massachusetts loses her charter.
10. Andros appointed governor.
11. Plymouth colony absorbed.
12. The new charter.

New Hampshire, 1623

1. Grant to Gorges and Mason.
2. Settlement of Dover and Portsmouth.
3. Union of New Hampshire and Massachusetts.
4. Royal province.

Connecticut, 1634

1. The Dutch at Hartford.
2. Emigration from Massachusetts.
3. The fundamental orders.
4. The New Haven settlement.
5. The colony of New Haven.
   - *a*. New Haven.
   - *b*. Milford.
   - *c*. Guilford.
   - *d*. Stamford.
6. The Pequot War.
7. Andros overthrows the charter government.
8. Regaining the charter.

Maryland, 1634

1. Position of Catholics in England.
2. Grant of Maryland to Calvert, Lord Baltimore.
3. The charter.
4. Settlement of St. Marys.
5. The Toleration Act.
6. Clayborne's rebellion.
7. Baltimore loses his colony.
8. Baltimore regains his colony.
9. Maryland loses its charter.
10. Baltimore loses the colony.
11. It becomes a royal colony.
12. Act of Toleration repealed.
13. Maryland restored to the Calverts.

Rhode Island, 1636
1. Roger Williams founds Providence.
2. Settlements of Portsmouth and Newport.
3. Religious toleration.

New Sweden, or Delaware, 1638
1. The Dutch on the Delaware.
2. The Swedes found Fort Christina.
3. The Dutch seize the colony.
4. The colony is captured by the English.
5. Purchased by William Penn.
6. Governed as a part of Pennsylvania.

The Carolinas, 1663
1. Grant of Carolina.
2. Early settlement at Charleston.
3. Locke's fundamental constitutions.
4. Rice and indigo.
5. Separation of North and South Carolina.
6. Royal provinces.

Pennsylvania, 1681
1. Grant to Penn.
2. Early religious toleration.
3. Newcastle and Philadelphia.
4. Treaty with the Indians.
5. Mason and Dixon's line.

Georgia, 1733
1. Grant to Oglethorpe.
2. Ideas of Oglethorpe.
3. Settlement of Savannah.
4. Provisions of the charter.
5. War with Spain.
6. Royal colony.

VI. French Explorations

The Missionaries
1. The Franciscans.
2. The Jesuits.

Marquette and Jolliet on the Mississippi

Robert de la Salle
1. Father Hennepin.
2. Building the forts.
3. Exploration of the Mississippi.
4. Louisiana claimed for France.

Foundations
1. Mobile.
2. New Orleans.
3. Duluth.
4. Detroit.
5. Vincennes.

VII. Wars of the English and the French in America

King William's War (War of the League of Augsburg), 1689–1697

1. Schenectady.
2. Salmon Falls.
3. Haverhill.
4. York.
5. Portland.
6. Groton.
7. Port Royal.
8. Results.

War of the Spanish Succession, or Queen Anne's War, 1702–1713

1. Deerfield.
2. Haverhill.
3. Port Royal.
4. Results.

War of the Austrian Succession, or King George's War, 1744–1748

1. Louisburg.
2. Results.

The Seven Years' War, or the French and Indian War, 1754–1763

1. Cause.
2. The French forts.
3. The Ohio Company.
4. Washington's journey.
5. The French at Fort Duquesne.
6. Albany Convention.
7. Plan of campaign.
8. Five objective points.
   - *a*. Fort Duquesne.
   - *b*. Louisburg and Acadia.
   - *c*. Crown Point and Ticonderoga.
   - *d*. Capture of Niagara.
   - *e*. Quebec.
9. Braddock's defeat.
10. Expulsion of Acadians.
11. Battle of Lake George.
12. Fort William Henry.
13. French reverses.
    - *a*. Louisburg.
    - *b*. Fort Duquesne.
    - *c*. Niagara.
14. Fall of Quebec.
15. Results of the wars between the English and the French.
16. Conspiracy of Pontiac.
17. The Quebec Act.

VIII. Life in the Colonies in 1763

The Colonists and England.

Civil Government

1. Charter colonies.
   - *a.* Connecticut.
   - *b.* Rhode Island.
   - *c.* Massachusetts.
2. Proprietary colonies.
   - *a.* Pennsylvania.
   - *b.* Delaware.
   - *c.* Maryland.
3. Royal colonies.
   - *a.* New Hampshire.
   - *b.* New York.
   - *c.* New Jersey.
   - *d.* Virginia.
   - *e.* North and South Carolina.
   - *f.* Georgia.

The New England Colonies.

The Middle Colonies.

The Southern Colonies.

IX. The Period of the Revolution

The American Revolution, I

1. Causes.
   - *a.* Difference in ideas and conditions between England and the colonies in 1760.
   - *b.* Taxation without representation.
   - *c.* Taxation by England to pay expenses of the French and Indian War.
   - *d.* Navigation Acts.
   - *e.* Writs of assistance.
   - *f.* The Stamp Act.
2. The Stamp Act Congress.
3. The Declaratory Act.
4. The Townshend Acts.
   - *a.* Provision for quartering royal troops.
   - *b.* Trade laws.
   - *c.* Taxes on glass, paper, tea, lead, and painters' colors.
5. The Boston Massacre.
6. The North Carolina Regulators.
7. The Boston Tea Party.

The American Revolution, I (*continued*)

8. The Five Intolerable Acts.
   - *a.* Boston Port Bill.
   - *b.* Trial of officers and soldiers in England.
   - *c.* Charter of Massachusetts changed.
   - *d.* Quartering of troops.
   - *e.* Quebec Act.
9. Committees of Correspondence.
10. First Continental Congress.

The American Revolution, II

1. Capture of Fort William and Mary.
2. Battles of Lexington and Concord.
3. Ticonderoga and Crown Point.
4. Second Continental Congress.
5. Bunker Hill.
6. Washington commander in chief.
7. Expedition against Quebec.
   - *a.* Montgomery.
   - *b.* Arnold.
   - *c.* Attack on Quebec.
8. English leave Boston.
9. Fort Moultrie.
10. Declaration of Independence.
11. Influence of *Common Sense.*
12. Plan of the British.
13. Campaign near New York.
   - *a.* Battle of Long Island.
   - *b.* British occupy New York.
   - *c.* Fall of Fort Washington.
   - *d.* Retreat through New Jersey
14. Battle of Trenton.
15. Robert Morris' great aid.
16. Distress of the American troops.
17. Campaign in the Middle States.
   - *a.* Battle of Princeton.
   - *b.* Battle of Brandywine.
   - *c.* Howe takes Philadelphia.
   - *d.* Battle of Germantown.
   - *e.* Valley Forge.
   - *f.* Conway Cabal.
18. Burgoyne's expedition.
   - *a.* Battle of Bennington.
   - *b.* Fort Stanwix.
   - *c.* Saratoga.
   - *d.* Surrender.
   - *e.* Important results.
19. The French alliance.

The American Revolution, III

1. The British retreat to Philadelphia.
2. Battle of Monmouth.
3. Battle of Butts Hill.
4. Stony Point.
5. Indian warfare.
   - *a.* Wyoming.
   - *b.* Cherry valley.
6. War in the West.
   - *a.* George Rogers Clark.
   - *b.* Father Gibault.
   - *c.* Kaskaskia.
   - *d.* Cahokia.
   - *e.* Vincennes.
   - *f.* Results.
7. War on the ocean.
   - *a.* Esek Hopkins.
   - *b.* John Barry.
   - *c.* John Paul Jones.
8. War in the South.
   - *a.* Fall of Savannah.
   - *b.* Fall of Charleston.
   - *c.* Camden and Kings mountain.
   - *d.* Cowpens.
   - *e.* Guilford.
   - *f.* Hobkirks Hill.
   - *g.* Eutaw Springs.
9. Treason of Arnold.
10. Surrender of Cornwallis.
11. Treaty of Peace.
12. The Northwest Territory.
    - *a.* Basis of laws for our territories.
    - *b.* Trial by jury.
    - *c.* Slavery prohibited.
    - *d.* Freedom of worship.
    - *e.* Education encouraged.
    - *f.* Civil liberty guaranteed.
13. Independence acknowledged.
14. Shays' Rebellion.

The Constitution

1. Congresses and acts that led to the Constitution.
   - *a.* New England Confederacy, 1643.
   - *b.* Leisler's American Congress, 1690.
   - *c.* Albany Convention, 1754.
   - *d.* Stamp Act Congress, 1765.
   - *e.* Committees of correspondence, 1773.
   - *f.* First Continental Congress, 1774.
   - *g.* Second Continental Congress, 1775.
   - *h.* Declaration of Independence, 1776.
   - *i.* Articles of Confederation, 1781.
   - *j.* Annapolis Convention, 1786.
   - *k.* Constitutional Convention, 1787.

2. Defects of the Articles of Confederation that led to the Constitution.
   - *a.* Lack of executive power.
     No president to execute the laws.
   - *b.* Lack of a judiciary.
     No national courts or judges.
   - *c.* Defective organization of Congress.
     (1) A single house.
     (2) Debates held in secret.
     (3) Members elected and paid by the states.
     (4) Each state might have seven members.
     (5) Each state must have two members.
     (6) Each state cast a single vote in Congress.
     (7) Vote of nine states required to enact a law.
   - *d.* Lack of power of Congress over revenue.
     (1) Congress had no power to raise revenue.
     (2) Congress could not collect money by taxation.
   - *e.* Lack of power of Congress to regulate commerce.
     (1) No freedom of trade between the states.
     (2) In foreign trade some states wished free trade, others a protective tariff.
     (3) States made selfish and unwise tariff laws.
   - *f.* Lack of power to enforce order.
     Congress had no power over any army or militia.

3. The provisions of the Constitution for the United States are
   - *a.* Legislative department.
     (1) House of Representatives.
     (2) Senate.
   - *b.* Executive department.
     The President.
   - *c.* Judicial department.
     (1) United States judges.
     (2) United States courts.

The Constitution (*continued*)

- 4. The provisions of the Constitution for the House of Representatives are
  - *a.* Manner of election. By the people of the states.
  - *b.* Term of office. Two years.
  - *c.* Qualifications of members.
    - (1) Twenty-five years of age.
    - (2) Nine years a citizen of the United States.
    - (3) Inhabitant of state where elected.
  - *d.* Apportionment.
    - (1) Among the states according to population.
    - (2) Not to exceed one for every 30,000 population.
    - (3) Each state must have at least one representative.
  - *e.* Census every ten years.
  - *f.* Officers. House elects its own officers.
  - *g.* Power of impeachment.
- 5. The provisions of the Constitution for the Senate are
  - *a.* Number. Two from each state.
  - *b.* Manner of election. By the state legislatures.
  - *c.* Term of office. Six years.
  - *d.* Qualifications of members.
    - (1) Thirty years of age.
    - (2) Nine years a citizen of the United States.
    - (3) Inhabitant of state where elected.
  - *e.* Presiding officer.
    - (1) Vice President of United States.
    - (2) In absence of Vice President, Senate elects a presiding officer *pro tem.*
  - *f.* Acts as a court to try cases of impeachment.
- 6. The provisions of the Constitution for the President are
  - *a.* Term of office. Four years.
  - *b.* Manner of election. By presidential electors chosen by the people of the several states.
  - *c.* Qualifications for office.
    - (1) Natural-born citizen of the United States.
    - (2) Thirty-five years of age.
    - (3) Fourteen years resident in the United States.
  - *d.* Oath of office. To support the Constitution of the United States.

The Constitution (*continued*)

7. The provisions of the Constitution for the Judiciary are
   - *a.* Appointment. — By the President, with consent of the Senate.
   - *b.* Number. Fixed by Congress.
   - *c.* Term of office. During good behavior.

8. The provisions of the Constitution for Federal courts.
   - *a.* Supreme Court.
   - *b.* Inferior courts which Congress may establish from time to time.

9. Cases tried in United States courts.
   - *a.* Those to which the Constitution and laws of the United States apply.
   - *b.* Cases affecting ambassadors, public ministers, consuls, or representatives of other nations, in the United States.
   - *c.* Cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction.
   - *d.* Cases to which the United States may be a party.
   - *e.* Cases between two or more states, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands by grants of different states, between a state or its citizens and a foreign state or its citizens.

10. The provisions of the Constitution for Congress are
    - *a.* Time of meeting. — Every year on first Monday in December.
    - *b.* Quorum. Majority.
    - *c.* Each house determines its rule of procedure.
    - *d.* Each house keeps a journal.
    - *e.* Neither house may adjourn for more than three days without the consent of the other.
    - *f.* The method of passing laws.

11. The Constitution gives Congress power
    - *a.* To lay and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises.
    - *b.* To pay debts and provide for the common defense.
    - *c.* To borrow money.
    - *d.* To regulate commerce.
    - *e.* To establish a rule of naturalization.
    - *f.* To pass laws on bankruptcy.
    - *g.* To coin money.
    - *h.* To punish counterfeiting.
    - *i.* To establish post offices and post roads.
    - *j.* To provide for copyrights and patents.
    - *k.* To declare war.
    - *l.* To raise and support armies.
    - *m.* To maintain a navy.
    - *n.* To pass laws necessary for carrying out the foregoing powers.

The Constitution (*continued*)

- 12. The Constitution forbids the United States to
  - *a.* Prohibit the importation of slaves before 1808.
  - *b.* To suspend the writ of *habeas corpus* except in war.
  - *c.* To pass bills of attainder or *ex post facto* laws.
  - *d.* To lay an export duty.
  - *e.* To grant titles of nobility.
- 13. The provisions of the Constitution for President are
  - *a.* Commander in chief of
    - (1) Army.
    - (2) Navy.
    - (3) Militia in the service of the United States.
  - *b.* Reprieves and pardons, except impeachment.
  - *c.* With consent of Senate.
    - (1) Make treaties.
    - (2) Appoint
      - Ambassadors.
      - Ministers.
      - Consuls.
      - United States judges.
  - *d.* Duties.
    - (1) Send messages to Congress.
    - (2) Call extra sessions of Congress.
    - (3) Receive ambassadors.
    - (4) Execute the laws.
    - (5) Commission officers of the United States.

X. Physical Features of the United States

Three Geographical Regions

1. The Atlantic Slope.
2. The Central Plain.
3. The Western Highland.

Effect of Physical Features on the Settlement of the Country

The Resources of the United States

XI. The Period of Union

Washington's Administration, 1789–1797

1. Political parties.
2. Payment of the debts.
3. Indian troubles.
4. Settlements on the Ohio.
5. Whisky Rebellion.
6. The cotton gin.
7. "Citizen" Genêt.
8. Jay's Treaty.
9. Treaties with Spain and Algiers.
10. Washington's farewell address.

John Adams' Administration, 1797–1801

1. Trouble with France.
2. X, Y, Z papers.
3. Alien and Sedition Laws.
4. Virginia and Kentucky resolutions.
5. Death of Washington.
6. The new capital.

Jefferson's Administration, 1801–1809

1. The Republican party in power.
2. Rise of the democratic spirit.
3. War on the African pirates.
4. The Louisiana Purchase.
5. Exploration of Lewis and Clark.
6. The Oregon country.
7. Hamilton and Burr.
8. The French and English War.
9. Right of search.
10. Embargo and non-intercourse.
11. Fulton's steamboat.
12. Importation of slaves forbidden.

Madison's Administration, 1809–1817

1. Trouble with Great Britain and France.
2. The *President* and the *Little Belt*.
3. Battle of Tippecanoe.
4. Declaration of war.
5. Causes of the war, "Free trade and sailors' rights."
   - *a*. Impressment of American sailors.
   - *b*. Violation of our rights of commerce by the Orders in Council.
   - *c*. Blockade by English vessels of our ports and the search of our vessels.
   - *d*. Urging the Indians to attack our frontier settlements.
   - *e*. England was already really waging war on the United States, while the United States was at peace with her.
6. Hull's surrender.
7. Battle of Queenstown Heights.
8. The *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*.
9. The *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*.
10. Raisin river massacre.
11. Fort Meigs.
12. Battle of Lake Erie.
13. Battle of the Thames.
14. Battle of Lake Champlain.

Madison's Administration (*continued*)

15. Burning of Washington.
16. Battle of New Orleans.
17. Treaty of peace.
18. The Hartford Convention.
19. End of the Federalist party.

Monroe's Administration, 1817–1825

1. Era of good feeling.
2. Disappearance of old party issues.
3. Cession of Florida.
4. The slavery question.
5. Missouri Compromise.
   - *a.* Missouri admitted as a slave state.
   - *b.* Maine admitted as a free state.
   - *c.* Slavery prohibited in Louisiana north of 36° 30′.
6. The Monroe Doctrine
   - *a.* The Holy Alliance
     - (1) Russia.
     - (2) Prussia.
     - (3) France.
     - (4) Austria.
   - *b.* The revolt in South America.
   - *c.* The Holy Alliance and the South American republics.
   - *d.* Announcement of the Monroe Doctrine.
7. Visit of Lafayette.
8. Emigration to the West.

John Quincy Adams' Administration, 1825-1829

1. The tariff question.
2. The Erie Canal.
3. The steam railroad.

Andrew Jackson's Administration, 1829–1837

1. Rotation in office.
2. Nullification.
3. Webster and Hayne.
4. The abolition movement.
5. The right of petition.
6. The contest over the United States Bank.
7. Indian wars.

Van Buren's Administration, 1837–1841

1. The crisis of 1837.
2. State banks and wild-cat money.
3. The subtreasury plan.
4. The antirent agitation in New York.
5. The Mormons.
6. The express business.

Harrison and Tyler's Administrations, 1841–1845

1. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty.
2. The Dorr Rebellion.
3. The electric telegraph.
4. The annexation of Texas.

Polk's Administration, 1845–1849

1. Settlement of Oregon.
2. Adjustment of the Oregon question.
3. War with Mexico.
   - *a.* Palo Alto.
   - *b.* Resaca de la Palma.
   - *c.* Buena Vista.
4. Plan of campaign.
5. New Mexico and California.
6. Scott's march to the city of Mexico.
   - *a.* Vera Cruz.
   - *b.* Cerro Gordo.
   - *c.* Puebla.
   - *d.* Contreras.
   - *e.* Churubusco.
   - *f.* Molino del Rey.
   - *g.* Chapultepec.
   - *h.* Fall of the capital.
7. The peace treaty.
8. The Wilmot Proviso.
9. Inventions.
   - *a.* Reaper.
   - *b.* Sewing machine.
10. Discoveries.
    - *a.* Goodyear process.
    - *b.* Ether.
11. The missions of California.
12. Decline of the missions.
13. Discovery of gold.
14. Emigration to California.

Taylor and Fillmore's Administrations, 1849–1853

1. The Compromise of 1850.
   - *a.* Admission of California as a free state.
   - *b.* Territorial governments for New Mexico and Utah.
   - *c.* Payment to Texas.
   - *d.* Prohibition of slave trade in District of Columbia.
   - *e.* Fugitive Slave Law.
2. The Fugitive Slave Law.
3. Personal Liberty Laws.
4. *Uncle Tom's Cabin.*
5. Gadsden Purchase.

Pierce's Administration, 1853–1857

1. Kansas-Nebraska Act.
2. Rise of the Republican party.
3. The struggle for Kansas.
4. Perry's expedition to Japan.
5. The Know-Nothings.

Buchanan's Administration, 1857–1861

1. The Dred Scott decision.
2. Crisis of 1857.
3. Lincoln-Douglas debates.
4. John Brown's raid.
5. Beginnings of secession.
6. Formation of Confederacy.

XII. The Period of Disunion

Lincoln's Administration, 1861–1865

1. Lincoln's inaugural.
2. Fall of Sumter.
3. Strength and weakness of the South.
4. Condition of the North.
5. The Border States.
6. European hostility to the North.
7. The northern plan of the war.
8. The call to arms.
9. The war in 1861.
   - *a*. Further secession.
   - *b*. Battle of Bull Run or Manassas.
   - *c*. The war in Missouri.
   - *d*. The blockade.
   - *e*. The Trent affair.
   - *f*. The privateers.
10. The war in 1862.
    - *a*. East.
      - (1) The plan against Richmond.
      - (2) The Peninsular Campaign.
      - (3) Battle of Cedar Mountain.
      - (4) Second Battle of Bull Run.
      - (5) Antietam.
      - (6) Fredericksburg.
      - (7) *Monitor* and *Merrimac* or *Virginia*.
    - *b*. West.
      - (1) Forts Henry and Donelson.
      - (2) Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing.
      - (3) Capture of New Orleans.
      - (4) Perryville and Murfreesboro.
11. Emancipation Proclamation.

Lincoln's Administration (*continued*)

12. The war in 1863.
   - *a.* East.
     - (1) Chancellorsville.
     - (2) Gettysburg.
   - *b.* West. Vicksburg.
   - *c.* Eastern Tennessee.
     - (1) Chickamauga.
     - (2) Chattanooga.

13. The war in 1864.
   - *a.* East.
     - (1) Sherman's march to the sea.
     - (2) Fall of Mobile.
     - (3) Battles of the Wilderness.
     - (4) Sheridan defeats Early.
     - (5) Petersburg.
   - *b.* West.
     - (1) Sherman's march from Chattanooga to Atlanta.
     - (2) Thomas at Franklin
     - (3) Thomas at Nashville.

14. The war in 1865.
   - *a.* Sherman at Goldsboro.
   - *b.* Fall of Richmond.
   - *c.* Lee's surrender.
   - *d.* Cost of the war.
   - *e.* Results of the war.

15. Assassination of Lincoln.

XIII. The Period of Reunion

Andrew Johnson's Administration, 1865–1869

1. Johnson plans reconstruction.
2. The Thirteenth Amendment.
3. The Civil Rights Act.
4. The Fourteenth Amendment.
5. The Freedmen's Bureau Act.
6. The Reconstruction Acts.
7. The Tenure of Office Act.
8. General amnesty.
9. Atlantic telegraph cable.
10. Purchase of Alaska.
11. Treaty with China.

Grant's Administration, 1869–1877

1. The *Alabama* claims.
2. Settlement of difficulties.
3. Civil service reform.
4. The transcontinental railroad.
5. Great fires of Chicago and Boston.
6. The Fifteenth Amendment.
7. Era of scandals.
8. The salary grab.

Grant's Administration (*continued*)
9. The Weather Bureau.
10. Crisis of 1873.
11. Financial legislation.
12. The Centennial.
13. The Indian wars.
14. The electoral commission.

Hayes' Administration, 1877–1881
1. Withdrawal of Federal troops from the South.
2. The Bell telephone.
3. Edison inventions.
4. The Eads jetties.
5. Yellow fever in the South.
6. Resumption of specie payment.

XIV. The Period of Industrial Development

Garfield and Arthur's Administrations, 1881–1885
1. Assassination of President Garfield.
2. Revision of tariff.
3. Civil-Service Act.
4. The Edmunds Antipolygamy Act.
5. The Chinese Exclusion Act.
6. Cheap postage.
7. The Alien Contract Labor Law.
8. Expositions in Atlanta and New Orleans.
9. Democrats regain power.

Cleveland's Administration, 1885–1889
1. The Washington Monument.
2. The Statue of Liberty.
3. The Presidential Succession Act.
4. The electoral count.
5. Interstate commerce.
6. The Chicago anarchists.
7. Tariff discussion.

Harrison's Administration, 1889–1893
1. Oklahoma.
2. Johnstown flood.
3. Admission of new states.
4. Pan-American Congress.
5. The New Tariff Act.
6. The Pension and Sherman Acts.
7. The Homestead Strike.
8. Founding of Catholic University.

Cleveland's Second Administration, 1893–1897	1. The Wilson Tariff Act. 2. The Columbian Exposition. 3. Hawaii. 4. The Bering sea question. 5. The Venezuela question. 6. The Crisis of 1893. 7. Repeal of the Sherman Act. 8. Repeal of the Federal Elections Act.
McKinley's Administration, 1897–1901	1. The Silver question. 2. The Dingley Tariff Act. 3. Destruction of the *Maine*. 4. Declaration of war against Spain. 5. Battle of Manila Bay. 6. The Santiago campaign. 7. Battles of El Caney and San Juan. 8. Destruction of Cervera's fleet. 9. Terms of peace. 10. War in the Philippines. 11. The Trans-Mississippi Exposition. 12. The Hague Conference. 13. The Gold Standard Act. 14. Freedom of trade with China.
McKinley and Roosevelt's Administrations, 1901–1905	1. The Pan-American Exposition. 2. Assassination of President McKinley. 3. Anthracite coal strike. 4. Panama Canal. 5. Department of commerce and labor. 6. Louisiana Purchase Exposition.
Roosevelt's Administration, 1905–1909	1. The San Francisco disaster 2. Admission of Oklahoma. 3. The Railway Rate Act. 4. The Meat Inspection Act. 5. The Pure Food Act. 6. Intervention in Cuba. 7. The Hague Peace Conferences. 8. The Crisis of 1907.

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